

OUR NEW POSSESSIONS



THE
PHILIPPINES

PUERTO
RICO

CUBA

HAWAII

FOUR
BOOKS
IN ONE
VOLUME

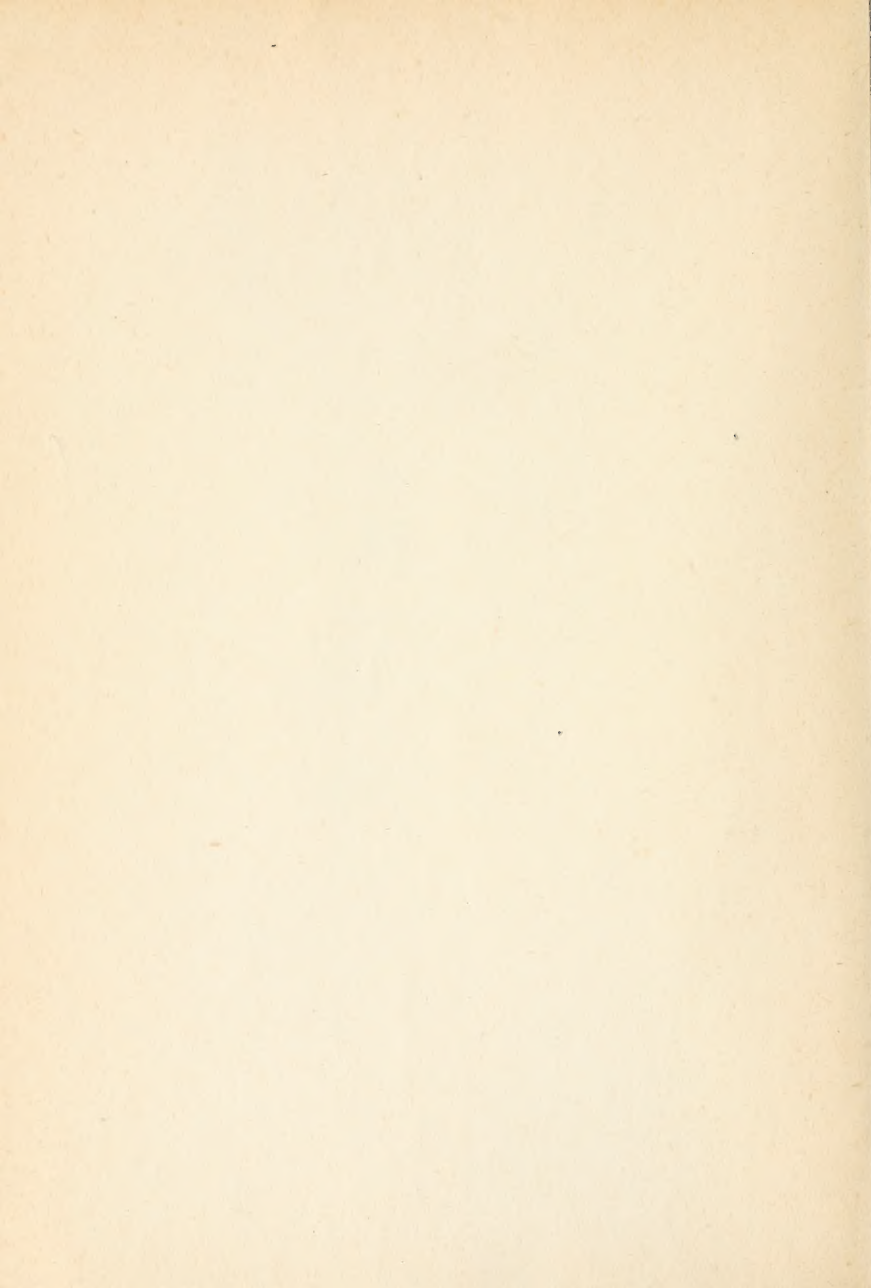


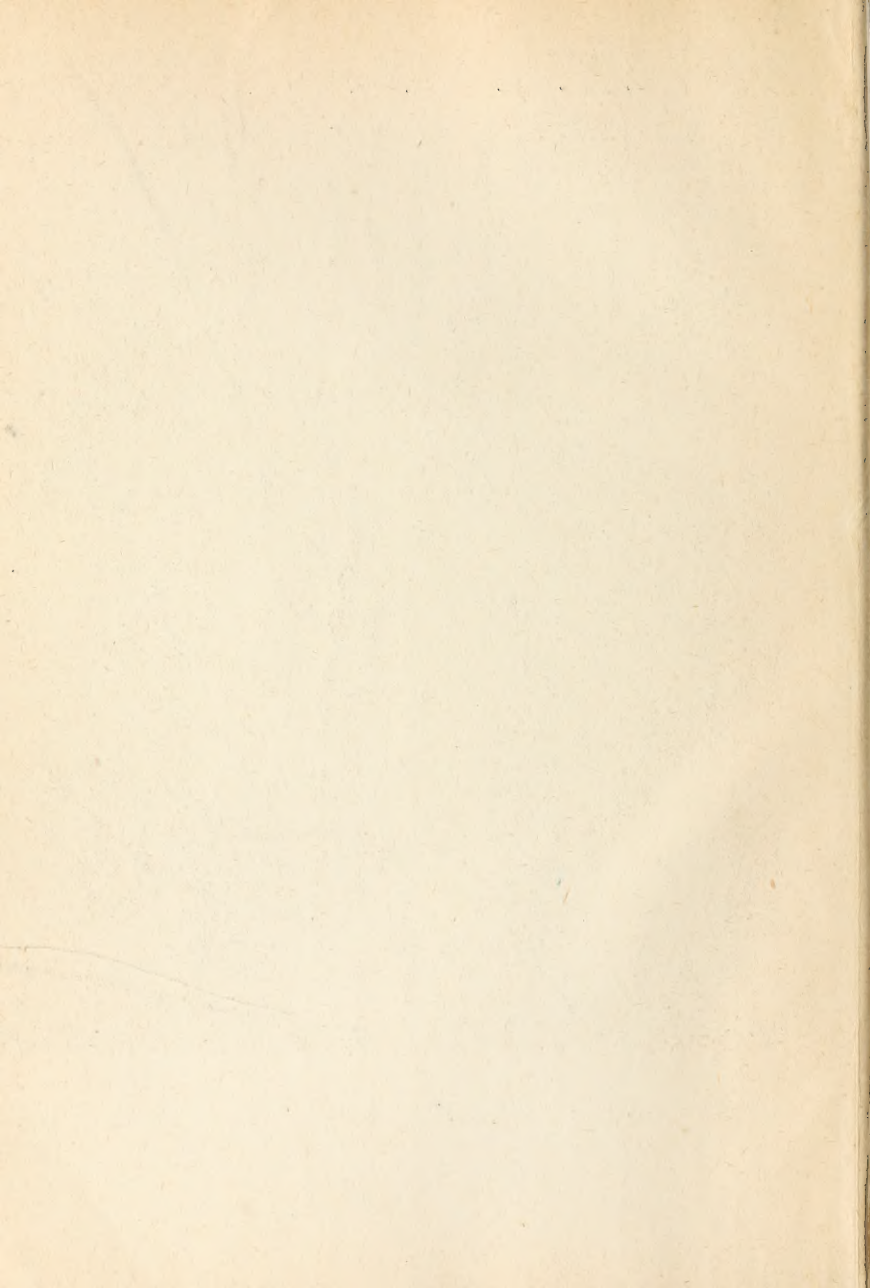
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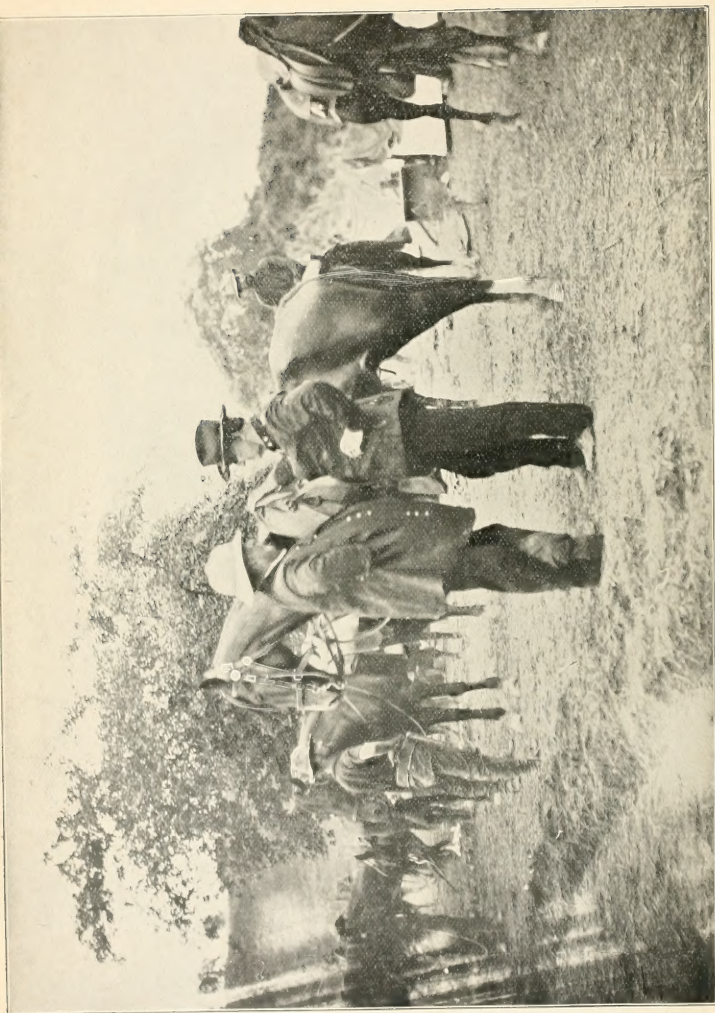
SCHLEY.

DEWEY.

SAMPSON

THE THREE GREAT NAVAL HEROES OF THE WAR WITH SPAIN

Rear-Admiral George Dewey, who sunk the Spanish fleet at Manila; Rear-Admiral W. T. Sampson, who planned the capture of Cervera's fleet at Santiago; and Rear-Admiral W. S. Schley, who superbly executed that plan.



MEETING OF MILES AND SHAFTER AT SAN JUAN HILL

General Shafter's telegrams to Washington after the first few days fighting before Santiago showed plainly that he was much exercised over the situation. General Miles hastened to Cuba and his presence was of great service in restoring confidence.

OUR NEW POSSESSIONS.

....FOUR BOOKS IN ONE....

A GRAPHIC ACCOUNT, DESCRIPTIVE AND HISTORICAL, OF THE TROPIC ISLANDS
OF THE SEA WHICH HAVE FALLEN UNDER OUR SWAY, THEIR CITIES,
PEOPLES AND COMMERCE, NATURAL RESOURCES AND THE
OPPORTUNITIES THEY OFFER TO AMERICANS.

Book I.—The Philippine Islands.

Book II.—Puerto Rico. Book III.—Cuba.

Book IV.—The Hawaiian Islands.

SPECIAL CHAPTERS ON TROPICAL CULTIVATION, SUGAR, COFFEE, ETC.

THE LADRONES, THE CAROLINES, AND OTHER ISLAND GROUPS OF THE PACIFIC, AND
THEIR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS.

BY

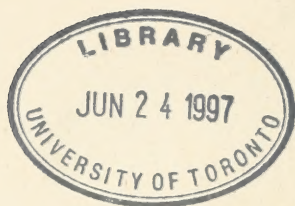
TRUMBULL WHITE,

THE WELL KNOWN AUTHOR, HISTORIAN, WAR CORRESPONDENT AND TRAVELER—AUTHOR
OF "OUR WAR WITH SPAIN FOR CUBA'S FREEDOM," ETC., ETC.

ELABORATELY ILLUSTRATED WITH PHOTOGRAPHS AND DRAWINGS FROM ALL THE COUNTRIES
INCLUDED IN THE WORK.

B. F. JOHNSON PUBLISHING CO.

RICHMOND, VA.



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To
All Americans Who Go A-Pioneering
in
Our New Possessions
and
To the People Who Are There Before Them.

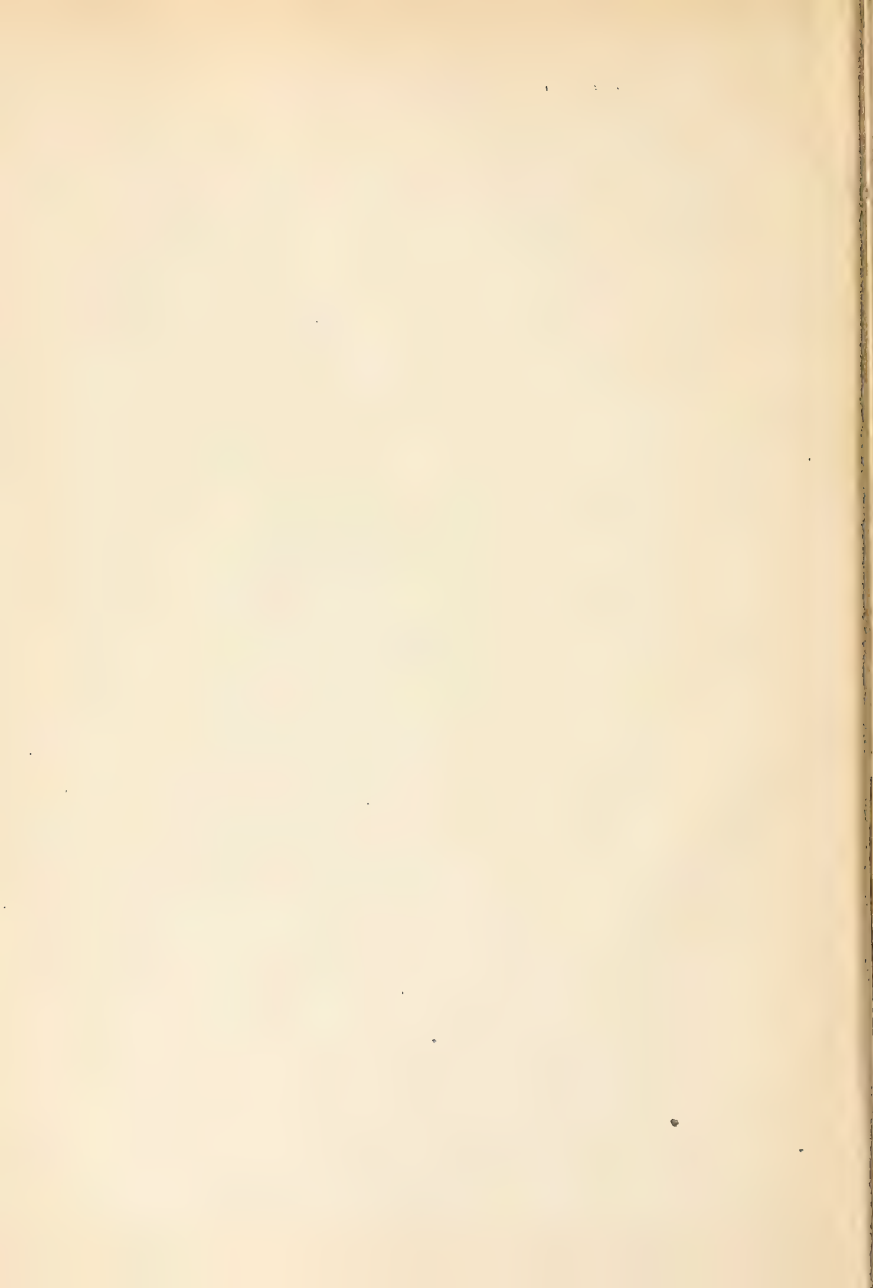


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ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY IN THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

In that notable conflict which did so much for the American arms and gained for himself undying fame, Admiral Dewey steadfastly refused to accept the shelter of the conning tower, but remained on the bridge of his flagship, the Olympia, throughout the engagement. It was the most dangerous post but it was the best point of observation to direct the battle, and that was the only consideration in Dewey's mind.



BIRTHPLACE OF ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY, MONTPELIER, VERMONT

The famous sea-fighter who gained the great naval battle of Manila was born in the little capital city of the "Green Mountain State."
His former townspeople are very fond of their hero.

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Native Grass House near Pearl Harbor.
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American Engineers in Pearl Harbor.
Planting Rice, Hawaii.—Pineapple Ranch, Hawaii.
Natives of Hawaii Making "Poi."
President Dole and Senator Morgan at a "Luau."—President Dole of the Hawaiian Republic.
"Off to America. — Sailing Day at Honolulu. — American Congressional Party at a "Luau," Honolulu.

INTRODUCTION.

Kipling's Toast to the Native-Born—New Lands to be Ruled by American Law or Dominated by American Influence—Problems of Colonial Government to be Solved—The Philippines, Puerto Rico, Cuba and Hawaii, Each Its Own Puzzle—American Possessions Extending Half Way Around the World—The United States and the Eastern Question—Poverty of Information Available Concerning Our New Island Possessions—Opinions of the Secretary of Agriculture on the Importance of the Islands to American Farmers, Merchants and Mechanics.

I charge you charge your glasses—
I charge you drink with me
To the men of the Four New Nations,
And the Islands of the Sea—
To the last least lump of coral
That none may stand outside,
And our own good pride shall teach us
To praise our comrade's pride.

—*Rudyard Kipling.*

WITHIN the measure of a single year, there have come into the possession and under the sway of the United States of America, four splendid colonies. Two have been captured by force of American arms on land and sea; one has been aided to her own experiment in freedom with an assurance of American assistance, advice and dominance in the organization of her new life; one has come to us of her own free will, to join the western republic and obtain greater measure of prosperity, progress and security.

So far as political relationships are concerned, all remain with an element of doubt. It is impossible to presage exactly the forms of government which wisdom may prescribe for Puerto Rico and Hawaii; it is impossible to know in advance the details of transfer of the Philippine islands from the power of Spain to the nation that is to inherit

them; it is impossible to be assured what measure of peace, what outlines of government, and what American relationships are to be the immediate sequence of affairs in Cuba. The Philippines have been

**PROBLEMS THAT
ARE TO BE
SOLVED.**

cursed by Spanish influence since the day of Magellan's discovery, and with their swarming millions of orientals present a problem not to be solved hastily. Concerning them intuition must wait upon logic and experience. We have found the islands in the midst of their own effort to throw off the yoke of Spanish oppression, and we have lifted the burden from their shoulders. Cuba comes to her freedom through centuries of oppression and misrule, the last three years, with all their horror and suffering, perhaps the happiest, because they were years during which patriots were fighting for the liberty of their own land. Hawaii comes under the banner of the stars and stripes, of her own motion, as the ultimate solution of her own island puzzle, a puzzle in which romance, commerce, history, tragedy and farce shared former years with restlessness and revolution leading to the republic. Puerto Rico, the only one of the four in which violence of late has been at rest, has suffered hardly less than her neighbor in the Antilles from the blight of Spanish dominion, and her people rejoice not less over the change in their station.

"Our New Possessions."

It is these things that justify to all alike the phrase, "Our New Possessions." Islands are no less in possession merely because political rule may not extend to them. If responsibility for the liberty, the peace, the commerce, the education of a people are not to imply a measure of possession without the additional link of political affiliation, the use of the expression will have to be revised. If we possess the commerce and the friendship of our neighbor islands it is enough to explain the word. To dominate in commercial influence and in all things for the uplifting of a swarming population of alien races, is a function as worthy and of more interest and consequence to most of our people, than the mere detail of official sway. The Philippines, Puerto Rico, Cuba and

Hawaii, all by moral right and manifest destiny are the noble fruits of victory and the rising power of the great American commonwealth. From the eastern capes of Puerto Rico to the westernmost of the Philippines is half way 'round the world. When the sun is sinking in the western horizon, before the eyes of the American citizen of Manila, it will be dawning again in the east for the American citizen of Puerto Rico. Its rays will gild the hills of the Spanish islands of the Caribbean, flash over the hills of our own eastern states, the prairies of our middle west, the mountains of Colorado and of California, and without an intervening moment of darkness will pass on over Alaska, the Hawaiian islands, the extremest of the Aleutian chain and the Ladrone islands to that most eastern of all—or most western, according as one journeys around the world—to reach the Philippines. The sun will never set on American possessions.

**NO SUNSET ON
AMERICAN
SHORES.**

For good or ill, the United States has entered upon a colonial policy, a policy of expansion, a policy which forces us into the position of a world-power, deep in the complications of international politics and the Eastern Question. It is now too late to turn back. Once having reached this position, it is unnecessary to argue the importance of obtaining all the adequate knowledge available on the great questions involved. American citizens, with the welfare of their country at heart, are endeavoring to familiarize themselves with the details of conditions in these new dominions and in the countries adjacent to them. Without experience or precedents of our own in a colonial policy, we are forced into the position of creating one, without time for experiment. We must learn while we govern and govern while we learn, and this too in close comparison with our neighbor nations in the Orient which have spent hundreds of years in the government of colonies and the methods of colonization. Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, Holland, Portugal and Spain will be our European neighbors in the Orient; Great Britain and France in the West Indies. For intelligent development of our new possessions and in order to make of them the best lands possible for ourselves and for the millions who inhabit them, we must know of the sphere of commercial and political influence

**OUR NEW
NEIGHBORS IN
THE ORIENT.**

of each of these colonial powers and their relations with Japan, China, Korea, and the islands of the Orient in the Pacific, as well as with the Central and South American republics that border the Caribbean.

The purpose of the accompanying volume is suggested in the foregoing outline of an evident need. It is such an obvious necessity to obtain and command the information on the subjects outlined, that the effort of justification is beyond question quite superfluous. But the subject itself is so ponderous and of such enormous consequence that it would be presumptuous for any author to cherish aspirations toward perfect success. The four books here included are but four books, and if there be found in them omissions of consequence, they must be charged to the material limitations of paper and covers rather than to the desire of the writer. So far as inadequacy of treatment within these limits is concerned, a generous judgment is hoped, the hope based on this same consciousness of the intention to afford accurate, comprehensive and entertaining information of an important and valuable sort within the limits here available.

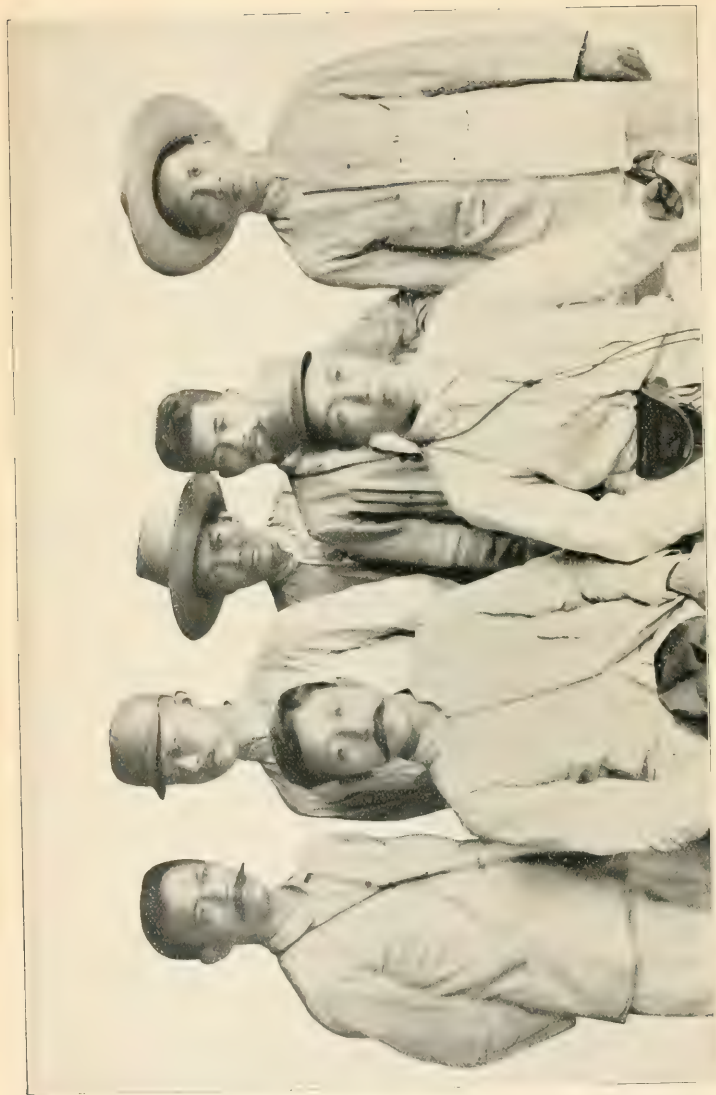
It is worth while, in the beginning, to call some attention to the exceeding poverty of information at present at command in printed form, concerning the subjects which are to be treated herein. First to mind come the Philippines, a group of islands the name of which was hardly known to Americans a year ago. Says one of the most recent writers, jocularly but pertinently, "By the victory of our fleet at Manila bay, one more of the world's side-tracked capitals has been pulled from obscurity into main lines of prominence, and the average citizen is no longer left, as in days gone by, to suppose that Manila is spelled with two l's and is floating around in the South Seas somewhere between Fiji and Patagonia. The Philippines have been discovered and the daily journals with their cheap maps have at last located Spain's Havana in the far east. It is indeed curious that a city of a third of a million people—capital of a group of islands as large as New England, New York, Delaware, Maryland, and New Jersey, which have long furnished the whole world with its entire supply of Manila hemp, which have exported some 160,000 tons of sugar in a single year and which to-day produce as excellent tobacco as that coming from the

**MEAGER INFORMATION ON
THE SUBJECTS.**



EMILIO AGUINALDO

General Aguinaldo, commander-in-chief of the insurgent armies in the Philippine Islands and president of the newly organized government of the "Republica Filipino," is a man of slight physique but great ability as an organizer and commander of men.



GROUP OF INSURGENT OFFICERS

The armed forces of native Filipinos in the Islands of the Archipelago are commanded by men of their own race, not alien adventurers. Before Manila and Iloilo they have demonstrated their ability. General Aguinaldo is the second from the left of those standing.

West Indies—it is curious, I say, that a city of this size should have gone so long unnoticed and mis-spelt. But such has been the case, and until Admiral Dewey fired the shots that made Manila heard round the world, the people of these United States—with but few exceptions—lived and died without knowing where the stuff in their clothes-lines came from.”

Until the imperative demand for more explicit information concerning the Philippines brought out a new crop of literature within the last few months, there has been but one book of any particular consequence regarding that island group. It so happened early in the present year, that the necessity arose for me to gather for newspaper publication such facts as were obtainable regarding the islands then rising into American prominence. I was anxious to fortify and supplement my personal knowledge of the subject with such other sources of information as I could find, in order to verify my own impressions, opinions and recollections. I began by searching the encyclopedias under all headings which could refer in any way to the islands and the cities of the Philippine group, the natural resources of the archipelago and the native races. Then I turned to the published volumes in one of the greatest American libraries and searched through the works of Spanish, German and English authors who had written on the same subjects. Periodical literature was the next source of information, and with the aid of Poole's exhaustive indices I drew on every magazine which had printed a paragraph about the Philippines within the last fifty years. When all was done and all the matter resulting collated, there was a total yield of bullion from the great quantity of ore which had been run through the stamp mill, not more than enough to fill a half-a-dozen newspaper columns with authentic, serviceable information. Since then there have been printed in the newspapers of the United States hundreds of columns of matter of variable reliability, written by the most casual observers with the utmost speed. The magazines have printed reminiscences from every traveler who has visited Manila. Three or four volumes of varying value have been rushed from the printing presses. The offerings now are larger, but they have not all been of quality sufficient to satisfy the demands of

**POVERTY OF
LITERATURE ON
THE PHILIPPINES.**

the American public for real information. The writer who wishes to formulate anything of permanent service must turn again to his own private sources of information, or collate and discriminate with the utmost care. If there is any value in such work it must be in its accuracy. It is well enough to be interesting when interest and authenticity do not conflict, but the former must be sacrificed to the latter in every case where they do not harmonize, if such work is to be of any service to those who read and rely upon it.

Of Puerto Rico, exactly the same things are true as those suggested concerning the Philippines. In spite of the proximity of this island of the Antilles to our own shores, it has been an unknown land to our people. Spanish policy has discouraged the development of natural resources in Spanish colonies by the investment of outside capital, while at the same time the people of the colonies have been so oppressed that they have not dared to develop at their own expense for fear of overwhelming taxation. Tourists have visited the English colonies on either side of Puerto Rico by hundreds, for every one who has visited the Spanish island. Communication from the United States to San Juan or Ponce has been infrequent and unattractive. The works of travelers and scientists who have written about the West Indies have contained chapters on the little islands of the Windward chain where they contain paragraphs on Puerto Rico. Even those things that have been written concerning the latter island, whether in Spanish, German or English, have been in great degree inaccurate and valueless for any practical purpose. A similar search made for material on Puerto Rico, just prior to the outbreak of war, resulted like that search for facts about the Philippines, in a meager and unsatisfactory quantity of uncertain quality. It was a satisfaction to me, which I am sure will be pardoned, that I was able to spend sufficient time in Puerto Rico during the last few months to make careful personal study of every phase and condition of island affairs, with the purpose of obtaining satisfactory material for the present work. In whatever else the following pages may fail, I pride myself that they do not lack accuracy in matters of fact.

Cuba has had a larger measure of attention from writers and trav-

elers than the other Spanish colonies, but the necessity for work of another character is not yet obviated. Warfare has taken the dominant place in all recent works on Cuba, to the exclusion of matter which would relate to the works of peace. Travelers of the past have visited Havana and a few other cities of the island, and have written picturesque descriptions of tropical scenery and life, without paying much attention to commercial and industrial affairs. The writers of the last few years have been compelled by the conditions within the island and by the direction of popular interest outside, to treat of the progress of insurrection instead of the works of peace and prosperity, which were forbidden by that very insurrection. But peace has its victories greater than those of war. The sad history of oppression and insurrection in "The Pearl of the Antilles" seems to be ended, and with Cuba at peace the riches of the island and the marvelous opportunities for its future progress rise into view with an imperative demand for attention. It has been my privilege to know alike the Spanish, the insurgent and the American leaders in Cuba on both coasts of the island. I have studied the industrial, agricultural, commercial and social conditions of Cuba with some care, and I cannot deny the conviction that in some degree this study has been productive of worthy results.

PEACE SUCCEEDS
WAR
IN CUBA.

In the Hawaiian islands my study of affairs has not been less careful. It has been directed into like channels concerning the industrial, commercial, agricultural and social conditions, with special attention to the solution of those problems which intermingle the history of the Hawaiian natives with the dominance of American civilization and the influx of Asiatic immigration. My last journey to the Hawaiian group ended just in time to begin another to the Spanish colonies of the West Indies, at the outbreak of our own war with Spain, during which I renewed the associations and the study which had ended in Cuba less than a year before. The Hawaiian islands, with their revolution and their republic, have occupied much attention in the public prints, but the subject has been by no means exhausted, and with the change to American possession, interest in the matter and

ROMANCE OF HISTORY IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

the importance of it to American readers have been greatly multiplied.

Agriculture in the Tropics.

Not the least important of all the relations in which American readers will have practical interest in our new possessions, is their conditions in agriculture. We are pre-eminently an agricultural people, and except for the bonanza seekers who settled California and Colorado, most of our pioneering has been done by our farmers, who have sought new homes and have made the waste places of the west to blossom and bear rich fruits of husbandry. The Hon. James Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture in President McKinley's cabinet, emphasized an important truth in a speech made a few weeks ago to an audience of Indiana farmers. He said in part: "What does all this mean to you and me—we producers, we fellows who cultivate the fields? It means that we will begin to educate those people, and the moment you educate a man he wants to dress better and eat better, and as you give more employment to the factory people we fellows have better customers. That is what the immediate result will be. The men who rule the world eat beef and wheat bread and they want to put creamery butter on top of the bread. Where will that beef come from? Why, it is you people who produce that beef. They don't produce bread. They don't produce dairy products. So that the result of this war is going to be more customers for the products of these magnificent pastures of yours. We western men, in the Mississippi valley, will have more customers—millions more customers and millions more profits. I have been watch-

**INTEREST FOR
THE AMERICAN FARMER.**

ing your rich soil. I have been looking at the corn-fields and the animals grazing on your pastures. You see the possibilities, the benefit coming to you farmers of this great state from intercourse with people of the twentieth meridian, 'way down in those insular possessions."

It has been my special pleasure, as well as care, in all my tropical journeys in the West Indies and in the islands of the south and west Pacific alike, to study the methods of tropical agriculture and the care

and profit of crops strange to farmers of the United States. In all of these islands one finds sugar and coffee and tobacco, with a host of products of lesser importance but equal interest and sometimes greater profit. Explicit information on these subjects, for the benefit of American inquirers, is a feature of the accompanying volume which is not duplicated in any work of similar sort, so far as my knowledge extends.

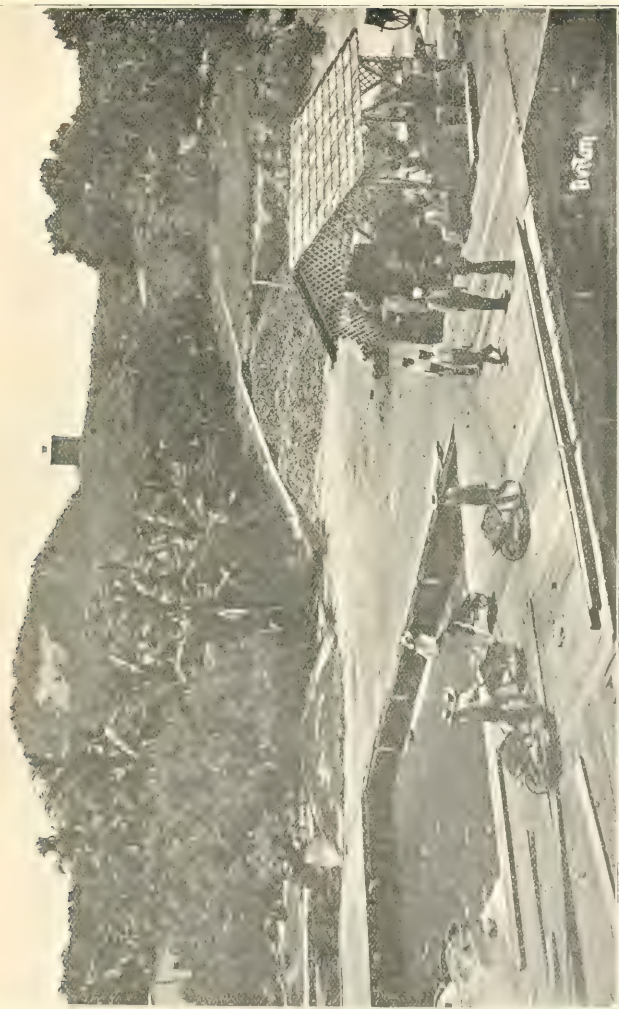
I would be reluctant to close this introduction without full acknowledgment of my indebtedness to the travelers and the writers who have gone before me, in their works on subjects kindred to those included in the present volume. Whether it be on the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Cuba or Hawaii, nearly every recognized authority and many of obscure fame have been read and studied in order to insure a greater measure of accuracy and a greater fund of information. It is impossible to name the entire list of those to whom I am frank to own indebtedness, in the ranks of Spanish, German and English authors, as well as American. But after all such obligations are recognized, I cannot refrain from recalling that most of the essential facts and conclusions are the result of my own researches and travel. To the extent that I have drawn upon the fund of information of others, I still have squared it by my own opinions and information and therefore have made it my own. For it all, therefore, I am willing to accept judgment, asking only what leniency may be expected from a generous public always ready to recognize a worthy purpose, however far short it may come in fulfilling its own desires.



Book I.

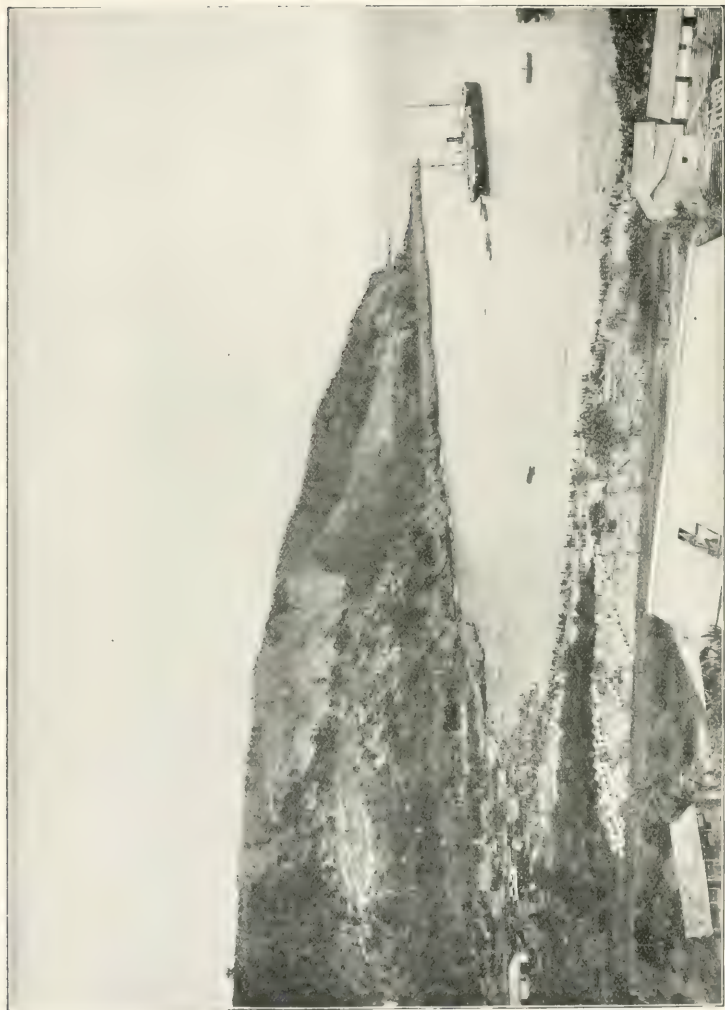
The Philippine Islands.





SPANISH NAVAL COALING STATION, SANTIAGO DE CUBA

The pile of coal in the center of the picture shows what was left when Admiral Cervera's fleet left to fight the fleet of Schley on the morning of July 3. These few tons would soon be exhausted and offer conclusive proof that they had to seek escape then or be captured for want of fuel.



SIBONY, THE MILITARY BASE IN CUBA.

This open roadstead, several miles nearer Santiago than was Biquiri, became the landing place for the greater part of the American army of invasion. From here the difficult advance was made on the city. All the sick and wounded were brought back to Siboney, where the general hospital and the fever hospital were established.



OUR NEW POSSESSIONS.

CHAPTER I.

HOW THE PHILIPPINES WERE FOUND.

The Trackless Wilderness of the Pacific Ocean—Its Wonders of Science, Adventure and Romance—Neighbors a Thousand Miles Apart—"The Milky Way of the Pacific"—Voyages of Magellan, Cook and Byron—The Pacific Islands in Literature—European Colonies in the East Indies—Some Details of Geography—Polynesia, Micronesia and Melanesia—How Magellan Entered the Service of Spain—The Search for New Spice Islands—Mutiny, Wreck and Desertion—First Sight of the Philippines—A Welcome from the Natives—Treaties of Peace, Brotherhood and Allegiance—Death of Magellan—Return of the Expedition to Spain—Philip II. Sends a Conquering Force to the East Indies—Legaspi's Invasion of the Philippines—Success of the Spanish Arms—Manila Declared the Capital—Legaspi and Weyler.

WESTWARD from San Francisco lies the loneliest ocean of the earth, except those unknown icy seas in the Arctic and Antarctic polar regions. The Pacific ocean, stretching ten thousand miles north and south and varying from four to eight thousand miles from east to west, is so stupendous in its area and so comprehensive in the wealth of its interest, that science and commerce have barely begun to discover what may be found within these limits. It sweeps from Behring strait to the Antarctic icebergs. On the east both Americas bound it, from Alaskan shores to Cape Horn. Westward the limits are the coasts of Asia and Australia. In its deepest abysses—the most extreme ocean depths ever sounded—are forms of life found nowhere else. Ranging through every zone from north to south and including, as it does, those portions of the earth which are alike the geographical and the ethnographical antipodes of European and American civilization, it contains material for a hundred books on a hundred subjects, without exhausting the things of consequence and interest.

In the great triangle of which the corners may be assumed to be

Easter island in the southeast, Sumatra in the southwest and the Siberian island of Saghalien in the northwest, are included thousands of islands hardly known to geographers, and peoples whose characteristics have never been studied. The distances are far greater than usually comprehended. Some fanciful writer with a capacity for apt phrases, has called the central portion of this great sweep of islands "the milky way of the Pacific." By the chart the phrase is justified, for the islands on a small map seem dotted as thickly as the stars in heaven. One must stop to measure the scale in order to realize that these groups are separated, not by intricate channels difficult of navigation, but by hundreds or even thousands of miles of deepest ocean. Neighborhoods in the mid-Pacific are measured even more generously than among the prairie farms of our western plains, and the white settler on one coral reef feels less lonesome when he learns that there is another within three or four days' sail of his schooner.

There are names famous in the exploration of the south seas which will occur to every reader's mind. Magellan discovered the Philippines and Cook the Hawaiian islands, as we insist on saying when some one from our own circle of civilization finds something of which we did not know before, although the people who lived in the adjacent regions may have maintained a commerce and a primitive civilization of their own for hundreds of years without ever realizing that they had not been discovered. Magellan sailed through the straits between Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, which still bear his name, reaching the spice islands of the Pacific. Legaspi, the next great Spanish explorer in the East Indies, named that notable group for his own sovereign, under whose patronage he was sailing—King Philip of Spain. Captain Cook in the voyage which brought him first to the Hawaiian archipelago, where he was afterwards slain by the natives, found a civilization, crude it is true, and even cruel, but it was their own, and he was as presumptuous as the other explorer in naming the new-found islands for his own patron, Lord Sandwich of the British admiralty. It is a strange contradiction of the ideas usually accepted regarding the stability of Spanish and English impress upon the lands reached by those influences, that the Spanish name still stands where

**DISCOVERIES
OF COOK
AND
MAGELLAN.**

Philippines and Cook the Hawaiian islands, as we insist on saying when some one from our own circle of civilization finds something of which we did not know before, although the people who lived in the adjacent

it was first supplied, while the name of Sandwich is almost forgotten in connection with the more eastward island group.

Lord Byron, the uncle of the poet, was another who explored those seas, while in an earlier day Tasman and Van Dieman and many another whose name is preserved in the geography of the south seas, cruised about to find the remote lands that were then new to European knowledge.

Masters of literature have found material for the delectation of their readers in these far-away waters. Herman Melville and Robert Louis Stevenson, Charles Warren Stoddard and Mark Twain, Louis Becke and Joseph Conrad are those who have written the descriptions, the romance and the fiction of the south seas in most attractive form. Scientists have studied ethnology in the islands and marine life at sea. Yachtsmen have cruised for the pleasures of the picturesque life of the islands. Now commerce is coming to the fore.

It is only by studying the charts that one can have accurately placed in mind the relative locations of the distinct groups in this great stretch of ocean. The Hawaiian islands, although more than two thousand miles southwest of San Francisco, are but the eastern boundary of the volcanic chains. Tahiti of the Society islands, the Friendly islands, the Samoan or Navigators' group, Raratonga, Tongatabu, the Marquesas, the Fiji islands, the Carolines, the Ladrões, the Pelew islands, the Radaek chain and the Ralick group, are but names in most minds, and yet each has its port, its commerce, and its picturesque scenery and life. If one go farther westward into the Orient, where the islands are larger and richer and more populous, he will come to the Philippines and Java, Celebes, Sumatra, Borneo, and others whose names even are unfamiliar but which support populations of millions by productions of untold value.

**ISLAND GROUPS
OF
THE PACIFIC.**

Every nation of Europe which has ever maintained outlying colonies has shared in the profits and the government of these islands. Portugal, Spain, Holland, Germany, France and England have divided the spoils between them. Until military exigencies sent Dewey to Manila during the early days of the Spanish-American war, our country had had no sphere of influence in the islands of the south and

eastern Pacific except in the two groups of Hawaii and Samoa. For many years the United States has been the dominant influence in the Hawaiian islands. In less degree, but to an extent no less well defined, the same influence has been dominant in Samoa, sharing this position with Great Britain and Germany, but clearly leading them in the mind of the natives.

Geography of the Pacific Ocean.

In the enormity of the Pacific ocean it is necessary to be more explicit in one's geography than the mere characterization by points of the compass. Geographers have named the island groups and the seas which surround them according to the natural characteristics of the natives they found or the fame of the explorer who visited them or the conditions of language, fauna and flora. That little bit of ocean between New Zealand and Australia, only a thousand miles square, is called the Tasman sea. Between New Guinea and Australia is the Arafura sea. That torrid body of water bounded by Borneo, Sumatra, Java and Celebes is the Java sea. Between Indo-China and the Philippines is the China sea. South of the Philippines and between that group and Borneo and Celebes is the Celebes sea. These bodies of water are as well defined in their boundaries and in their physical characteristics as the Caribbean or Mediterranean. They and a dozen others that might be named, which are contained within the outer limits of the same great Pacific ocean, are the highways of thousands of vessels bearing commerce of enormous riches among the islands of the Orient.

Geographically, the island groups of the Pacific are divided into three great classifications, Polynesia, Micronesia, and Melanesia. Their

**POLYNESIA,
MICRONESIA, AND
MELANESIA.**

limitations are not exact, because to some extent they have been based on the kindred languages of the natives in various island chains, and these by shipwreck or daring explorations in their own canoes, have scattered about the Pacific until sometimes a Polynesian people may be found thousands of miles from the parent stock of the race. Speaking generally, however, Polynesia includes the southerly and easterly islands which are inhabited by a race of savages of far higher type

than usually realized by those who have not examined into the question. It is among them that the nearest approach to American ideas of civility and friendly welcome of strangers is found. Northwest of the Polynesian groups are those classified under the general name of Micronesia. They include New Guinea, the Solomon islands and others where most ferocious savages of low and warlike types are found. Of these many islands are still unexplored and avoided by navigators because of the threat of danger from the natives. In the northern part of this division are included the Caroline, Ladrone and Pelew islands, which have been under Spanish dominion and which are inhabited by natives of a milder type than their savage neighbors to the southward. Westernmost of all is that division of tropical islands known variously as Melanesia or Malaysia, including Sumatra, Java, Celebes, Borneo and the Philippines. With this preliminary information to freshen the memory of the reader concerning the geography of the great tropical sweep of the Pacific ocean, we may apply ourselves more specifically to the immediate subject before us.

It was but twenty-seven years after the first voyage of Columbus that another voyage under Spanish auspices began, the results of which are now intertwined with our own history.

The period of exploration which made the fifteenth **NOTABLE PERIOD**
century notable and which was crowned by the **OF**
voyages of Columbus, stimulated the navigators **EXPLORATION.**
of Spain, Portugal, Holland, England and France to the utmost rivalry in their search for new lands and new seas. Balboa's discovery of the Pacific ocean induced many efforts to find the passage which presumably would give access to it from the Atlantic, but venture after venture ended in failure. Spain was to profit once more by the work of an alien, who, like Columbus, had turned from his own country to a strange monarch for encouragement and means. Ferdinand Magellan or Hernando Maghellanes, as the name stands in its original form, was a nobleman of Portugal, who had campaigned for his king in wars at home, fighting bravely and winning fame. Jealous companions attacked him to the king, discrediting his service and the wounds which rendered him a cripple. Resenting the bitterness of his sov-

ereign's ingratitude, Magellan left Portugal, became a citizen of Spain and finally won the favor of King Charles I.

In those days monarchs were not exempt from the commercial spirit, and an agreement was made by which Magellan undertook the discovery of new spice islands. The king provided five vessels fully equipped and was a partner in the venture to the extent of sharing the larger part of the prospective profits. It was on the tenth day of August, 1519, that the explorer set sail with his modest fleet, and four months later the first stage of the voyage terminated with safe arrival at Rio de Janeiro.

Magellan had to undergo an experience like that of his illustrious predecessor and face a mutiny. Sailing from the Brazilian capital southward, in the endeavor to find a passage to the Pacific, he encountered severe cold weather and resultant restlessness. The commander planned to enter one of the rivers which came down to the ocean from the interior of South America and there pass the winter, but his officers and crews disagreed on this proposition, some wishing to sail for home, some willing to follow their leader's plan, and others anxious to form plans of their own. It was the captains themselves who were most difficult to discipline. One of them was executed, in punishment for an attack made upon the commander, and another was set ashore in irons. Then the fleet entered the river as Magellan willed and passed the winter there in safety and comfort. The expedition moved slowly southward after spring opened, losing one ship by desertion and another by wreck, but on the 28th of October, 1520, the remaining three reached the straits separating Patagonia from Tierra del Fuego, which ever since have been known by the name of this first European commander who passed through them.

Sailing westward and northward for many weeks, on the 16th of March, 1521, Magellan discovered what we now know as the Ladrone or Marianne islands. Magellan gave them a more musical name, calling them the *Islas de las Velas* or islands of the sails, because of the resemblance of some of the sharper hills, from a distance, to the sails of his vessels. After a short stay on these islands Magellan sailed

southwestward, reaching for his next landfall the north coast of Mindanao, the largest island of the southern Philippines.

Like Columbus in the West Indies, the explorer found the natives friendly and glad to furnish the Spaniards with plentiful provisions. The local chief, who was, perhaps, the king of the island, related enticing tales of the riches of the other islands in the archipelago, particularly of Cebu, and offered to pilot the expedition there because the king was a relative of his. Naturally this generous proposition was accepted with alacrity, and Magellan, after taking formal possession of Mindanao in the name of his Spanish patron, sailed away for the neighboring islands. He reached Cebu on the 7th of August, his arrival spreading alarm among the natives who saw from the beach the strange craft. The chieftain from Mindanao, however, gave them assurance that the strangers were but seeking food and were without any hostile design. The king of Cebu thereupon proposed to make a treaty with Magellan with both Spanish and native ceremony. This proposition was welcomed by the Spanish commander, who brought his men on shore, where impressive ceremonies were performed. The Spaniards erected a hut and celebrated mass in it, much to the interest of the impressionable natives. The members of the royal family and their retainers and other influential men were baptized and swore allegiance to their new master, the King of Spain. Then the native custom followed and the ceremony of exchange of blood in token of brotherhood was celebrated. No time was lost in beginning the activities which were to follow this offensive and defensive alliance. The king was in the midst of war with some of his neighbors and Magellan entered into the conflict with his own men and arms with apparent pleasure. The result was fateful to him. Within a few months he was fatally wounded during an unimportant skirmish on the little island of Mactan, and died there in a short time.

**MAGELLAN
TAKES
MINDANAO.**

Spanish Slain by Treachery.

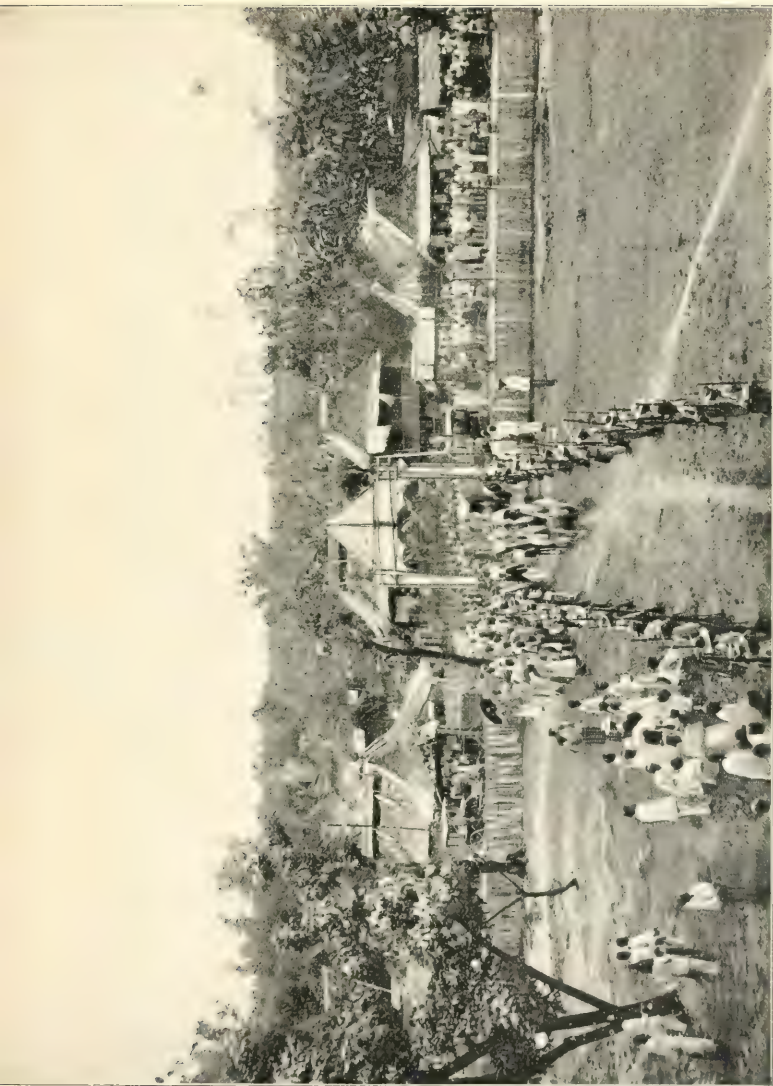
Once the dominant force of Magellan's personality was absent, the expedition found its troubles multiplying. Trouble rose between Spanish and natives and twenty-seven of the former were slain by

treachery at a banquet where they had been the guests of honor. The total number of men for the three ships was now reduced to one hundred, an altogether insufficient number for the long homeward voyage. As a measure of prudence, one of the vessels was burned and the other two sailed westward again, this time discovering the large island of Palawan and touching a part of north Borneo. At Tidor a cargo of spices was taken aboard, but one of the vessels sprang a leak and had to be abandoned. The other continued the voyage and finally reached Spain again, after undergoing many more hardships and adventures for her crew, thus completing the first circumnavigation of the globe.

Although the results of this notable voyage were sufficient to stimulate King Charles to the organization of two more expeditions, neither of them accomplished anything commensurate with the expense, labor and time involved. It was not until more than forty years later that any serious attempt was made to reduce the lands to possession. Although the Philippines were nominally a part of the Spanish realm, their value was a matter of doubt, no commerce with them was organized, they produced no revenue, and there was not even a Spanish officeholder in the whole of the archipelago. It was Philip II., in whose honor the islands were to be named, inspired by religious zeal, who set out to conquer and convert to Catholicism the millions of islanders.

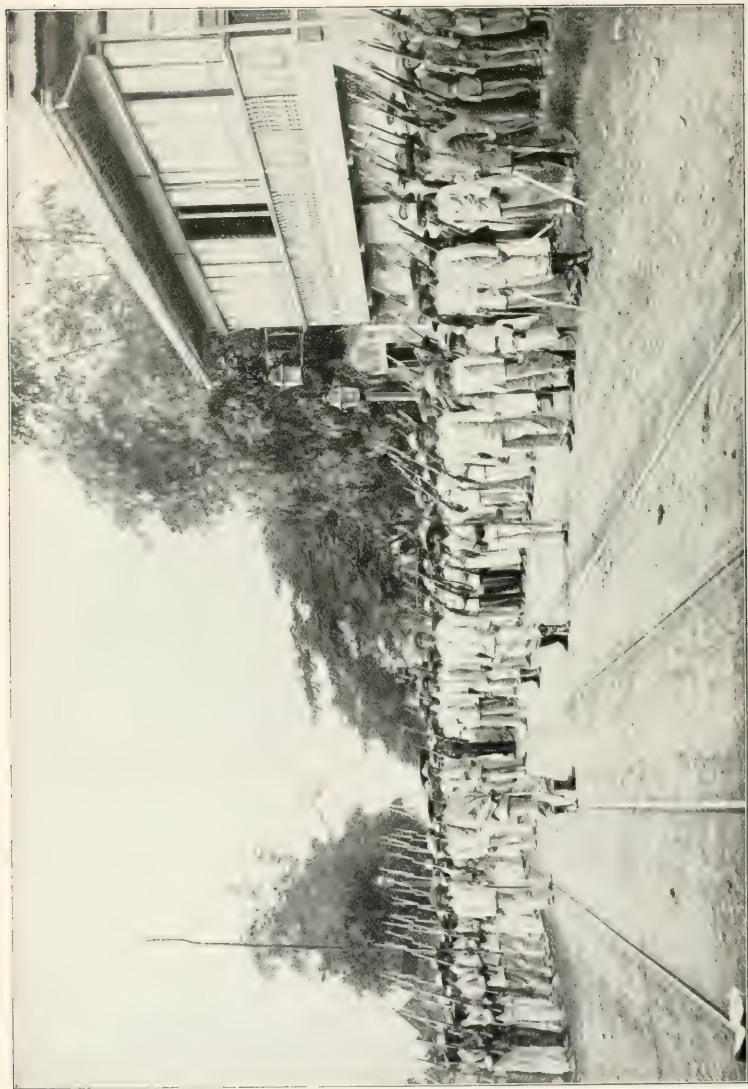
The expedition was equipped in the American colonies of Spain, four ships and a frigate being made ready on the west coast of Mexico. Four hundred soldiers and sailors were gathered as an army of invasion under the famous leader, Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, with six Augustine monks to introduce Christianity and look after the spiritual welfare of the native races who were to be conquered. The date of this expedition was 1563, but its progress was slow and some years intervened before the islands came under extended influence of the Spaniards. Legaspi took possession of Magellan's *Islas de las Velas* on the way, changing the name to the *Ladrone* or "robber" islands, as a tribute to the expert thievery of the natives, who adroitly stole a boat from one of his ships.

Legaspi reached the Philippines first at Camaguin, and after



MEETING OF THE FIRST CONGRESS OF FILIPINO INSURGENTS

General Aguinaldo with his personal escort is just entering the churchyard in the city of Malolos, where the first insurgent congress was held on September 15th, 1898. His carriage is about to pass between the ranks of the soldiers of the insurgent army.



INSURGENT SOLDIERS IN PONDO

The accompanying illustration gives an excellent idea of the type of men and the equipment of the insurgent army in the Philippines. The photograph was taken near Manila, just before the insurgent forces moved out beyond the American lines in order to be no longer under American authority as to their movements. They have maintained from the beginning that the Americans were but their allies in war against the Spanish, and had no authority over them.



NATIVE CHILDREN, MOLO, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This group of youngsters seems almost as good-natured as would an American boy, were he, like them, standing beside a cocoanut palm tree, with a banana plant growing just behind him.



GROUP OF NATIVES NEAR ILOILO

This picture was taken in a village on the island of Panay near the second city of the archipelago.



TYPICAL STREET IN JARO, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This is an excellent representation of a village street in one of the outlying districts of Luzon.



STREET IN ILOILO

This is the second city in the Philippine archipelago measured by its commercial importance, and its volume of trade is considerable.

touching at Bohol and sending one of his boats at Mindanao, decided to begin his invasion of Cebu. The ruling monarch, who had succeeded the king of Magellan's time, was much exercised upon the arrival of the squadron, and, selecting one of his bravest subjects, sent him as a spy to report on the Spaniards. The man came back deeply impressed by what he had seen, to assure his sovereign that the ships were manned by giants with long pointed noses, who were dressed in magnificent robes, ate stones, drank fire and blew smoke out of their mouths. With such a report as that filed for his official consideration, the king could do little but make peace with the powerful strangers. When Legaspi landed on the 27th of April, 1565, to take possession of the town, he met a welcome, but the natives soon became suspicious of his motives and made energetic attacks upon him. At one time his force was in great danger of extermination, but he held on bravely while the people grew accustomed to the new conditions. Then the Portuguese appeared on the scene and set up a claim for the islands, but they were soon driven off and the pacification of Cebu and the neighboring islands proceeded steadily.

**ADVENTURES
OF
LEGASPI.**

In 1569 Panay was invaded and the next year Legaspi's grandson, Salcedo, was sent with an expedition to subdue Luzon. June 24, 1571, the first city council of Manila was established and forms of government were enacted. One year later Legaspi died.

The remarkable energies and abilities of this first conqueror of the Philippines cannot be ignored. His achievements were almost incredible. In Spain to-day he is still named as one of their notable heroes of conquest. Strange enough seems the coincidence that General Weyler, who was himself the governor-general of the Philippines three hundred and twenty years later, should be the individual most responsible for the cruelties in Cuba which led to American interference in the affairs of that Spanish colony. Another detail of coincidence is that the Spanish gunboat employed by General Weyler in Cuban waters for his personal use between ports and as his personal dispatch boat, in which service I have seen it many times in Havana, was the Legaspi, named in honor of that first governor-general of the Philippines.

**ENERGY AND
ABILITY OF
LEGASPI.**

CHAPTER II.

THREE HUNDRED YEARS IN THE PHILIPPINES:

The Chinese Invasion of Luzon—A Mongolian Colony in the Philippines—Massacres of the Chinese by the Spanish—Insurrection and Revolt in the Archipelago—Uprising of the Natives of Bohol, with the Causes of Outbreak—Revolution in Mindanao—Trouble at Cavite—Expulsion of the Jesuits—Five Thousand Killed in One Week—A Premature Explosion of Fire-works—Revolt Engendered by Spanish Friars—The British Capture of Manila—The Difficulty of Letting Go of an Undesirable Capture—Asiatic Cholera in the Philippines—Massacre of Foreigners—A Period of Merciless Peace.

THE Spaniards were hardly more than comfortably settled in possession of their easily acquired new domain, when troubles began to brew. The rulers of China and Japan both claimed rights in the archipelago, and the former made a strenuous effort to enforce his rights and expel the rival conquerors. Between 1573 and 1575 ten separate attacks were made upon Manila by fleets from Canton and Amoy, with great loss on both sides, although, as might have been expected, the Spaniards ultimately were victorious.

The most desperate of these attacks was that under the Chinese general and pirate, Li Mah Ong. The records are somewhat confusing as to his identity and status. At any rate he chanced to fall in with a Chinese trading junk which was returning from a trip to Luzon. This he captured and forced her crew to pilot him to Manila. He brought with him a formidable fleet of sixty-two armed junks carrying 4,000 men and 1,500 women. Hurried preparations were made for the defense of Manila against the threatened raid. The Chinese attacked the city immediately upon their arrival, forcing their way within the walls of the citadel itself. Hand to hand combats lasted for several days. The Spaniards fought with bravery, finally repelling the Mongolian invaders. Many vessels of the Chinese fleet were destroyed and large numbers of the soldiers and sailors killed.

Li Mah Ong next landed on the west coast of Luzon, establishing a settlement at the mouth of the Agno river, where he remained undisturbed for several months. Then a strong force was sent against him and again he was driven out. With the larger part of his force he left the archipelago for good. Many of the soldiers, however, were driven into the mountains as fugitives. With characteristic Chinese philosophy they settled in the fertile valleys of the interior and started communities which are still flourishing at the present time. They took wives from among the savages and to-day their descendants are hardly distinguishable from other Malays, although they take deep pride in their descent and look down upon their neighbors as being of an inferior race.

**SPANISH WARS
WITH
THE CHINESE.**

The Spanish conquerors did not forget their antagonism to the Chinese, and at various times there were general massacres of the Mongolians which cost them thousands of lives. One of the more notable massacres of the Chinese took place in 1662. There was a Mongol chief in China who refused to yield at the time of the Tartar invasion in the middle of the seventeenth century. Instead he sailed to Formosa with his troops. At that time Dutch settlements had been founded in the island and 2,800 of the Europeans were attacked by about 100,000 Chinese and were forced to surrender. Word reached Manila that the Chinese were contemplating a descent upon the Spanish colony and the governor of the Philippines accused the Chinese among his own subjects of conspiracy in the contemplated attack. All the available forces were concentrated and when everything was ready the Chinese were incited to rebel and a general massacre followed. Men, women and children were killed indiscriminately, the Spaniards at first intending to kill every one of the Chinamen. Before they had carried out this intention it fortunately occurred to them that the resulting lack of tradesmen and mechanics would cause inconvenience, so those who remained alive were graciously pardoned on condition of laying down their arms. Some of the Chinese escaped to Formosa.

In 1709 another massacre of Chinese occurred, this time only a few hundreds of the luckless Mongolians being killed. The rest of them, however, were deported and after the fashion that had been estab-

lished, all their property was confiscated and divided between the church and state. Between 1628 and the middle of the next century nine attempts were made by the Spaniards to conquer the Sulu islands, but in every instance they were repulsed with heavy losses.

The history of insurrection and revolt in the Philippines does not begin with the current one, of which General Aguinaldo is the leader. Although our interest has not been sufficient to be directed to the Philippines until recently, the population of those islands have had to con-

**BEGINNINGS
OF
INSURRECTION.**

tend with oppression which they have resented by uprisings frequently and as energetically as at the present time. The first noteworthy uprising was made by the natives of Bohol in 1622. The causes which led to it were the same which have provoked many of the more recent revolts, namely, the tyranny of the church and the burdensome taxes levied by church and state alike. The rebels were dispersed by troops under the governor of Cebu. So far as the causes of the outbreak of insurrections are concerned, they do not need to be reiterated in the successive revolts. Sometimes some special feature of oppression stimulated the outbreak as its immediate cause, but the seeds of discontent always lay dormant under Spanish dominion ready to germinate at the slightest signal.

The people of northeast Mindanao broke out with another revolt in 1629 and were promptly suppressed. Twenty years later, the people of Samar rebelled on account of an attempt to force them into military service. Under the leadership of a chief named Sumoroy they killed a priest and sacked the churches along the coast. The governor of the island dispatched native emissaries to bring in Sumoroy's head, but they sent him instead the head of a pig. The revolt spread and

**THE REVOLT
OF
CHIEF SUMOROY.**

troops were dispatched into the interior to quell it. They failed to take Sumoroy, but found his mother in a hut, and, true to Spanish traditions, literally tore the defenseless old woman to pieces. Sumoroy was at length betrayed by his own people. This uprising spread to other provinces and trouble arose in Masbate, Cebu and Mindanao. In the latter island things assumed so threatening an aspect that a large force of infantry was sent against the rebels. The officer in command, being

a diplomatist, first published a general pardon in the name of the king. He then made prisoners of the crowds of insurgents who flocked to his camp and sent them to Manila, where a few of them were pardoned and others executed, the majority, however, being made galley slaves.

The natives of Pampanga province grew weary of being obliged to cut timber for the Cavite arsenal without pay, and in 1660 they revolted. Neighboring provinces joined in the rebellion and a native named Malong was declared king. He organized an army which was recruited to the number of nearly 40,000. Many Spaniards were killed, but the natives were finally defeated and scattered by a force ridiculously inferior in numbers to their own.

The Jesuit priesthood in the Philippines was the stimulus for one of the more successful insurrections. In 1744 the despotism of a Jesuit priest caused an uprising in Bohol. The priest had not only ordered his parishioners arrested when they failed to attend mass, but had directed that the body of one of them should be left unburied to decay in the sun. The brother of this man organized a force, captured the priest and paid him in his own coin, killing and exposing his body for four days. The rebel forces were rapidly augmented by men who complained that while they were risking their lives in military service for the government, their homes were wrecked and their wives and families maltreated to secure the payment of tribute. The insurgents maintained their independence for thirty-five years, at the end of which time the Jesuits were expelled from the colony.

The famous revolt led by Novales and Ruiz occurred in 1823. Under these officers a body of native troops tried to seize Manila and place their leaders at the head of the government. It is needless to say that the attempt was an utter failure, **DESPERATE WORK OF THE REBELS.** but it was very fierce and bloodthirsty, although short, and is said to have cost the lives of 5,000 people within a week. Among the other uprisings which may be mentioned are one in Cebu in 1827, and one in Negros in 1844. The latter is said to have resulted from the governor's compelling state prisoners to work for his private advantage.

Until the rebellion of 1896 broke out, the most formidable insur-

rection occurred at Cavite in 1872. There were conspirators both at the arsenal and in the capital and it had been agreed that when the opportune moment arrived, the Manila contingent should signal the fact by discharging a rocket. The Cavite insurgents mistook fireworks sent up at a local celebration for the expected signal and began operations prematurely. They were forced to retire to the arsenal and all were eventually killed or captured.

Hostility to the Spanish friars was at the bottom of this uprising also. A certain Dr. Burgos had headed a party which demanded fulfillment of the decisions of the Council of Trent prohibiting friars from holding parishes. These provisions had never been carried out in the Philippines, and the various orders were steadily growing more rich, powerful and arrogant. It is commonly believed that churchmen were the real instigators of this revolt, desiring to involve Burgos and his followers in treasonable transactions and thus bring about their death. However this may have been, the friars insisted that they should be executed and were able to enforce their desire.

In the latter half of the eighteenth century, when all Europe was at war, the Philippines did not escape the consequences of those far-away hostilities. Great Britain declared war against France and Spain in 1761. Havana was captured by the British, as will be related in the portion of this work which treats of Cuba, and a fleet was dispatched under Admiral Cornish with orders to take Manila. On the 22d of

**WHEN DRAPER
CAPTURED
MANILA.**

September, 1762, this fleet arrived before the doomed city, and land forces were disembarked under command of General Draper. After a stout resistance upon the part of the Spanish garrison, which was brave but far inferior to the English force in numbers, the city finally fell.

The terms of capitulation were drawn up by Draper and the archbishop of Manila, who in the absence of a governor-general was serving in a double capacity. The agreement called for freedom in the exercise of religion; security of private property; free trade for all the inhabitants of the islands, and the continuance of the courts for the maintenance of order. The Spanish were to pay an indemnity of \$4,000,000. In harmony with a custom then sadly common among victorious armies,

the city was given over for pillage. The English troopers are said to have shown moderation, but the Sepoys, of whom Draper had brought 2,200 from India, outraged, robbed and murdered the inhabitants in the very streets. On the following day there was a similar scene, whereupon the archbishop protested and Draper restored order.

The surrendered territory included the whole archipelago, but the English never occupied more than that part of it which lay immediately around Manila. Even there they were not left undisturbed. One of the justices of the supreme court named Simon de Anda escaped in a native boat to the province of Bulacan. He declared himself governor-general and raised an army, but the desultory fighting which ensued between his forces and the British had no decisive results. A conspiracy to assassinate Anda and his Spanish followers was discovered among the Chinese in Pampanga province and a massacre of the Mongols followed. Anda was so enraged with them that he issued a proclamation declaring them all traitors and ordered them hanged wherever found. Thousands who had been in no way concerned in the conspiracy are said to have been executed.

The war indemnity which had been agreed upon was not forthcoming. The British forces were harassed by attacks from without the city and by fear of treachery within, and at last the officers fell to quarreling among themselves. Meanwhile the war had come to an end in Europe, and the evacuation of Manila had been provided for by the terms of the treaty of Paris concluded on the 10th of February, 1763. Anda, however, refused to consider the war ended until his authority was recognized, and hostilities in the Philippines continued for some months. Finally a new governor-general came from Spain. The British commanders were quite ready to turn the difficult problem over to him, and they promptly evacuated the city and sailed away, although a considerable portion of the indemnity still remained unpaid. It is more than likely that England would have kept the Philippines at that time if the European war had continued much longer, but Spain and France both sued for peace and the same treaty which ended the French and Indian war, as it was known in the American colonies of

**INDEMNITY
COLLECTIONS
ARE DIFFICULT.**

Great Britain and of France, provided for the restitution of Manila to the government at Madrid.

A crisis of another form came to the Philippine islands in 1820, which almost destroyed civilization in the colony. For the first time in its modern history the archipelago was invaded by Asiatic cholera. It began at Sampaloc, near Manila, spread to the capital city and

**THE
FATAL SCOURGE
OF CHOLERA.**

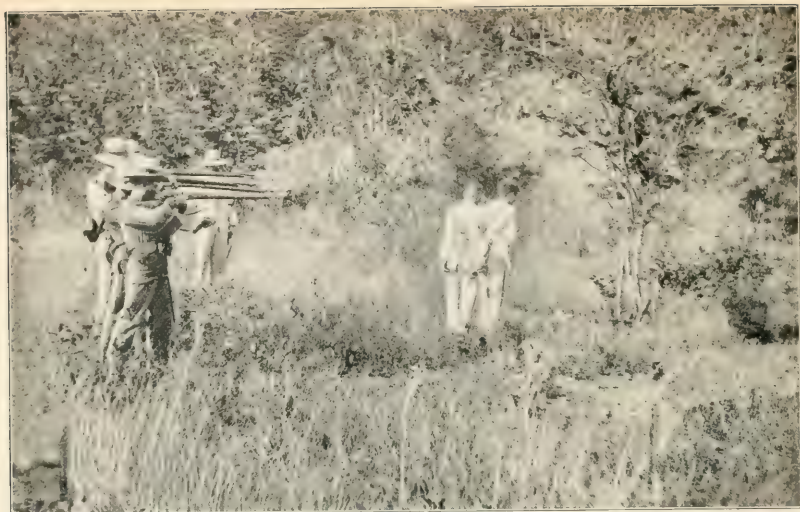
thence went into every part of Luzon. The mortality was frightful, some records declaring that over one-half of the population died from the disease. In the height of the epidemic the ignorant Spaniards and natives were seized with the idea that the disease was the result of a wholesale plot to poison them in the interests of the foreigners of the community. Mobs rose all over the island and massacred Chinese, French, English, Americans, and finally the Spaniards themselves. Houses were burned, citizens robbed and buildings looted. Ultimately the disorders were quelled.

Since the revolt of Novales and Ruiz in 1823, the career of the Philippines has been comparatively calm and quiet except the Burgos rebellion at Cavite in 1872. There have been many minor uprisings, riots and revolts, but the policy of the government has grown sterner with the years and merciless measures have been put in effect. The smallest riot has been the signal for martial law. Small gunboats have made it possible to rush troops to the scene of every insurrection and not too much care has been taken to be sure of the guilt of those arrested. Every one involved or suspected usually has been tried by court martial and shot without delay. It was this condition which led up to the Aguinaldo revolt of 1896 and was in effect at the time of that outbreak. Beginning with that revolution the history of the Philippines has an American point of view to be considered.



METHOD OF CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES

The garrote is employed for the execution of prisoners under sentence of death in the Philippines, and, under certain circumstances, in other Spanish countries, hanging being unknown. After being swathed in a white garment, the prisoner is seated in a chair with his back against a post, through which a large screw extends, its point pressing against the back of his neck. A collar holds his neck against the post and a sudden turn of the screw severs his spinal cord.



EXECUTION OF INSURGENT SOLDIERS—PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The Spanish have never recognized their insurgent enemies as prisoners of war when captured, reserving the right to execute them as rioters if they chose.



COCK FIGHTING IN THE PHILIPPINES

This sport is as popular in the Philippine Islands as in Cuba or Puerto Rico, and is prevalent throughout the islands.

CHAPTER III.

AGUINALDO AND HIS REVOLUTION.

Restlessness of the Filipinos—Outbreak of Insurrection—Characteristic Spanish Policy—Bribery and Treachery—The Treaty of Biyak—Cubans and Filipinos Suffer Treachery Alike—Terms of the Treaty—Failure to Declare Amnesty—General Rivera Rewarded—Proclamations of the Junta Patriótica and General Aguinaldo—Antagonism Directed against the Friars and not against the Catholic Church.

TO THE people of the United States, the most familiar name of all the native insurgents of the Philippine islands is that of Aguinaldo. His title in full is Don Emilio Aguinaldo y Famy, President of the Revolutionary Government of the Philippines and General-in-Chief of the Army, but his signature is usually the single word by which he is known to us. Although we have known little of the progress of the insurrection against Spanish rule in the Philippines prior to the arrival of Admiral Dewey, yet the Philipinos have been making history for their islands long before that time, and their leader had not reached his position of eminence by accident, but by his own energies and abilities.

For a long time the native inhabitants of the Philippine islands had been restless under the oppressive yoke of Spanish cruelty. Finally, under the advice of the organized Junta Patriótica an insurrection was begun, the principal strength of which was centered in the island of Luzon, as a threat against the city of Manila, the seat of Spanish government, and in the island of Panay, in which is situated the city of Iloilo, second in commercial importance in the archipelago. After a surprising series of insurgent successes, the Spanish government decided that bribery and treachery would be more effective defenses for their possessions in the East than would military operations. They began by offering a large sum of money, \$800,000, to certain of the leaders of the

SPANISH ATTEMPT
TO BUY
PEACE.

insurrection on condition that the latter use their influence among the people to arrange for a treaty of peace and a termination of hostilities. This treaty of peace, according to the stipulations made by the Spanish, was to contain every concession for which the Filipinos had been fighting, except political independence.

It is impossible to judge harshly the Filipinos who had been reared under the tutelage of Spanish rule, for their failure to draw fine ethical distinctions when such a proposition was placed before them. The examples and practices to which they had been accustomed might easily have demoralized men of sturdier moral fiber than these. Be that as it may, these leaders took the position that if their people could obtain everything for which they were fighting without longer warfare, there would be nothing wrong in accepting such generous payment for bringing about that desired consummation. Peace would follow with its attendant blessings. There would be no more loss of life and property, with the other suffering which always accompanies war. Their countrymen would have all the concessions for which they were striving and no one would suffer by their own acceptance of an attorney's fee. Therefore the proposition of the Spanish authorities was accepted and the treaty of Biyak was signed with great solemnity. Then came the time to test the sincerity of the parties to the agreement.

It is well known that the Filipinos were ready to renew insurrection under the same insurgent leaders before the outbreak of war between Spain and the United States, the period of peace being but a short one. The \$400,000 which had been paid to the insurgent leaders had been used advantageously for the purchase of arms and ammunition to carry on their warfare, with the result that the Filipino forces were equipped as they never had been before. It was an immense aggravation to the Spaniards, and one readily understood, that their own cash had been turned against them in this fashion. Some of the insurgent leaders were with the troops surrounding Manila, while others remained at Hongkong, where they continued to provide the munitions of war for their brothers in the field. This was the condition when Admiral Dewey sailed from Hongkong to Mirs bay, and thence to Manila for the fight that ended in the destruction of the Spanish fleet in the Philippines.

The whole justification or blame for the Filipinos rests on the

question whether or not the Spaniards, the other parties to the treaty of peace, kept their part of the agreements so carefully made. The facts seem to show that Spain followed exactly the course which she followed in Cuba in 1878 to terminate the Ten Years' War. The programme as carried out in each case, provided first for the bribing of the insurgent leaders to use their influence for peace; second the promising of whatever reforms were necessary to induce the insurgent armies to cease fighting; third the immediate punishment of all the insurgent leaders on whom they could get their hands as soon as peace was actually established and matters in their own hands; fourth, the renewed and redoubled severity of treatment to the pacified colony; and fifth, the utter ignoring and repudiation of every detail of the seductive promises they had made. A natural consequence of this chain of circumstances was the renewal of insurrection in each case by the deceived insurgents, as soon as new equipment and new organization could be arranged. It is impossible to blame them for responding to treachery after that fashion.

**SPAIN'S
SHAMEFUL POLICY
OF DECEIT.**

In order to do no injustice to the insurgent leaders, concerning the money to be paid to them, it is but fair to state that there was no secrecy about it, nor did the men who formed the forces of their armies consider that any impropriety was involved. In the stipulation of the treaty it was declared that the Spanish government was to pay the insurgent government a war indemnity of 800,000 pesos, in payment of the arms, ammunition, depots and forts which were surrendered, and in order to indemnify those who were obliged to live abroad during the armistice. These facts were known to the insurgent armies, and consequently involved those to whom the money was paid in no charge of unfairness or bad faith in their dealings.

By the terms of the treaty an armistice of three years was established and the natives were to lay down their arms and turn them over to the Spanish authorities. The Spanish authorities on their part bound themselves to grant certain reforms, of which the most important were the restriction of the power of the religious orders, the representation of the Filipinos in the Spanish Cortes, the future impar-

**REFORM PROMISED
BY THE
SPANISH.**

tiality of justice and law between Spaniards and natives in the Philippines, the participation of natives in the office-holding of the islands, and the liberty of the press. It was agreed that the governor-general of the islands, General Primo de Rivera, should remain in that position throughout the three years of the armistice as a guarantee that the reforms would be established, and that a general amnesty should be proclaimed.

The Spanish authorities were so far from carrying out their agreements that it would seem almost as if they had studiously endeavored to go as far as possible from the terms of the treaty, and for the further irritation of the Filipinos. In the first place, General Rivera was removed from his post very soon, thus withdrawing from the islands the one who would have been best informed on the demands of the natives. The general amnesty was never declared, although a few pardons were given. Only half of the offered indemnity was paid. Instead of estab-

lishing the reforms, the very things which were most irritating to the insurgents were aggravated. The religious orders were given increased power, two vacant bishoprics being filled at once by priests of the very orders that were the first cause of the insurrection. In the short time intervening between the signature of the treaty and the removal of General Rivera from Manila, he denied the existence of the agreement and executed many of the very persons whom he had promised to protect, endeavoring by this means to destroy the nucleus of the revolution. In Spain he was given the decoration of the grand cross of San Fernando, as a reward for the peace he had established. By all of these things the Filipinos believed themselves absolved from any obligation to Spain that had been assumed by the mutual agreements included in the treaty.

Since the American invasion of the Philippine islands, numerous proclamations and documents have been issued by Aguinaldo himself, and by the Junta Patriótica, which are of great interest as showing the trend of thought of the Filipinos. Some of these are addressed to the people of the islands and others very evidently are intended for reading by Americans. One of the more notable of these is an injunction to all the natives of the islands to maintain peace and patriot-

ism. It outlines likewise the desires of the islanders for their country. They declare for a stable government elected by the people, with laws enacted by those who are to live under them, and taxes levied fairly and honestly. They declare for honest and economical civil service in the charge of natives of the country, and such others as can serve as teachers of proper administrative methods. They declare for the liberty of business affairs, the construction of means of transportation, and the establishment of a system of public instruction. The people are enjoined

**PROCLAMATIONS
OF
AGUINALDO.**

not to fear any antagonism to the religion of the Roman Catholic church, under which they live, because of American dominance, recalling that the Catholic church in America shares the same freedom that is given to all. In every proclamation issued by General Aguinaldo he has enjoined upon his people the obligation to be peaceful, honest, and generous with the Americans. It has been an encouraging sign that these proclamations have been conservative and intelligent in their tone.

The Filipinos draw a very clear distinction between the Catholic church as an organization and the religious orders to which the Spanish priests in the islands belong. They claim that they are themselves Catholics and that they honor the church and welcome its ministrations. For the priesthood, however, they have nothing but blame. They assert that the friars of the various orders, Jesuits, Dominicans, Franciscans, Augustines and Recollects have been the worst enemies of the people, prospering from their miseries, and traitors to their welfare. The priests must go, they assert, because they are mischief-makers and disturbing elements in the population. So deeply do they feel what they assert, that it is to be doubted if any mercy would be shown the Spanish priesthood should the Filipinos obtain authority sufficient to execute them. They desire their ministry to be made up of people of their own races, who are in sympathy with them. This condition is one that cannot be ignored in any plans for the future of the islands.

CHAPTER IV. \

DEWEY AND THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY.

Departure from Hongkong—Plan of the Battle—The First Shot—The American Fleet Off Cavite—The Flagship Olympia Begins the Fight—Daring Sortie of the Reina Cristina—Torpedo Boats Attack the Olympia—Spanish Vessels Burning—The End of the Battle—Condition of the Spanish Wrecks—Strange Conditions After the Battle—Insurgents Organize Their Provisional Government—Fighting Between Spaniards and Insurgents—Waiting for the Army of Occupation.

AT THE time of the outbreak of war between the United States and Spain, the Asiatic squadron of the United States navy was lying at anchor in the harbor of Hongkong, the little British island colony near Canton, China. On Sunday, April 24, while the fleet was still lying at anchor off Hongkong, Commodore Dewey received pretty definite information that a state of war existed between Spain and the United States. He was notified that the British secretary for the colonies, Joseph Chamberlain, had decided that war had virtually begun, and that all British ports would be compelled to observe strict neutrality. The American squadron was given until 4 o'clock Monday afternoon to leave the harbor. The Boston, Concord, McCulloch and Petrel left Sunday afternoon at 2 o'clock. The Olympia, Baltimore and Raleigh left at 10 o'clock Monday morning.

The scenes and incidents attending the departure of the warships were quite impressive. Promptly at 10 there was a simultaneous movement forward by the three ships, and then the band on every war vessel struck up "Hail Columbia." The British soldiers on board of a British troopship cheered as they passed, and the American sailors answered vigorously. Little steam launches puffed alongside the Olympia and the crowds of Americans on them waved handkerchiefs and cheered until the mouth of the harbor was passed.

The Raleigh had unfortunately broken her air pump the day before

and the speed had to be kept down. At about 3 o'clock the vessels dropped anchor in Mirs bay, which is a little land-locked harbor thirty-five miles north of Hongkong. The four other warships, which had gone the day before, were at anchor, and the two cargo boats, the Nanshan and Zafiro, were lying off a short distance. The combined fleet seemed to be very formidable.

The American Asiatic squadron, consisting of the flagship Olympia, Baltimore, Raleigh, Boston, Concord, Petrel and McCulloch, and under command of Commodore Dewey, accompanied by the transports Nanshan and Zafiro, left Mirs bay at 2 P. M. April 27 for Manila. The fleet proceeded in regular formation across the China sea, 640 miles, and sighted Cape Bolinoa at 3:30 A. M. April 30. This point is about 115 miles north of the entrance to Manila bay. The Boston and Concord, and later the Baltimore, were then sent in advance of the fleet as scouts, and to explore Subig bay for two Spanish warships, reported to be there. This bay is thirty-five miles north of Manila bay.

At 5:15 o'clock on the afternoon of April 30 the squadron came to a stop, and was rejoined by the Baltimore, Boston and Concord, which failed to find the Spaniards. A conference of commanders was held. It was decided to run past the forts of Corregidor island in the mouth of the bay, which was said to be strongly fortified, that night. The ships were ordered to conceal all lights except a faint stern light, which could be seen only from the direct rear, and slip by the forts in darkness.

About 11:30 the entrance to the bay could be seen. Two dark headlands—one on either side of the entrance—showed up gloomy and absolutely darkened against the shifting, uncertain clouds. In the space between a smaller mass showed where the dreaded Corregidor lies. A vivid patch of fire came slowly out from the black background and the squadron bore down directly toward it. It proved to be Greek fire, and was probably a night life buoy dropped by one of the ships. It danced and darted on the face of the water and until it was discovered what it was there was a lot of suppressed excitement among the crews.

At Corregidor it was understood the heaviest guns of the Spanish were located. The entrance was also said to be planted with mines, and it was known that there were torpedoes waiting for the ships. Let the approach and the battle be described by an eye-witness:

The Olympia turns in and steers directly for the center of the southern and wider channel. The Baltimore follows and in regular order the rest of the fleet glide on through the night toward the entrance. Still there is no firing from the forts, and it is hoped that the daring maneuver may not be discovered. The excitement at this time is intense. The somber Corregidor and the big mass of hills at the south are watched with straining eyes.

**WHEN THE
EXCITEMENT
WAS INTENSE.**

About this time the soot in the funnel of the McCulloch caught fire and this circumstance may have revealed the movements of the fleet to the enemy. The flames shot up out of the funnel like the fire of a rolling-mill chimney. For a minute or two it burned and then settled down to the usual heavy black rolls of smoke.

A faint light flashed up on the land and then died out. A rocket leaped from Corregidor and then all was darkness and stillness again. The nervous tension at this time was very great. Again the flames rolled forth from the McCulloch's funnel and then again they gave way to the smoke. There was grinding of teeth on the McCulloch, for of all times in the world this was the most fatal time for such a thing to happen. While it burned it made a perfect target for the enemy. Still there was no firing.

Now we are almost in the strip directly between two forts. The Boston is 200 yards in advance of the McCulloch, but the Concord, Petrel, Raleigh, Baltimore and Olympia are well in the harbor.

Suddenly, just at 12:15 o'clock, a flash is seen on the southern shore, a white puff of smoke curls out, and the sound of a screaming cannon ball is heard. It passed well clear of the McCulloch, toward which it was fired. At the sight of the flash of flame and the subsequent dull report we waited in keen anxiety to see whether the ship would be struck. Now came an instant order from the bridge to load the after starboard six-pounder and fire five shells at the point where the smoke was seen. There was a short lull and the order was countermanded. Then there came a sound like the crashing of thunder and from the Boston went an eight-inch shell from her after gun. This was the first shot fired by the Americans.

Immediately there came a whirring, singing shell that seemed to



FILIPINO GIRL—MIDDLE CLASS

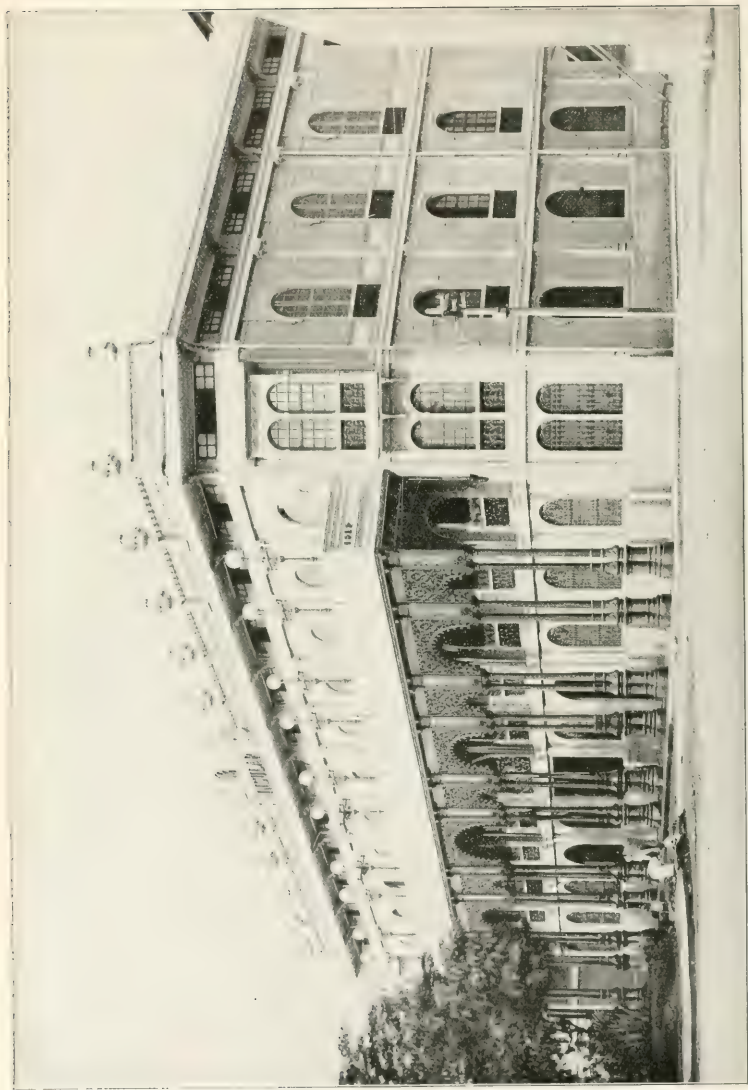


FILIPINO BOY—UPPER CLASS



WATER CARRIERS IN THE PHILIPPINES

We who are accustomed to having water from our own wells or hydrants, would find it difficult to become familiar with the idea of having the precious beverage brought to our doors in earthenware vessels by street carriers, yet that is what many people of the islands depend upon for their supply.



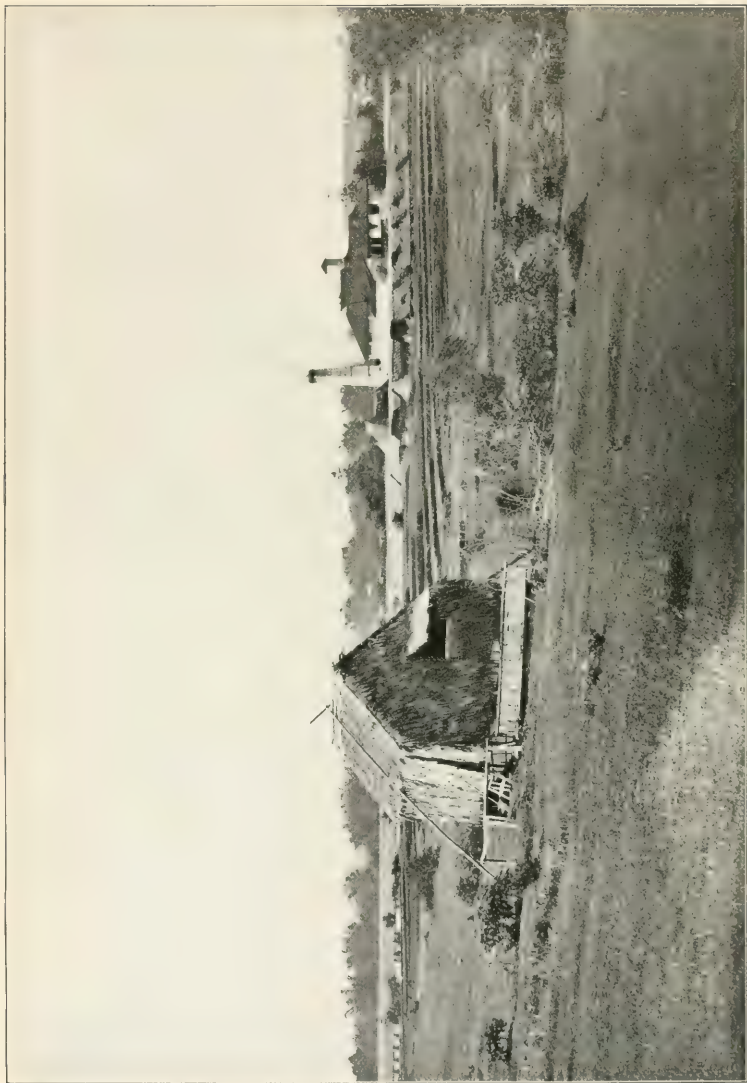
LA INSULAR CIGAR FACTORY, MANILA

Used as barracks for American troops. The industries connected with the raising and manufacture of tobacco in the Philippine Islands are very numerous and profitable. The firms which make cigars and distribute them occupy some of the most pretentious buildings in the city of Manila and employ large numbers of workmen. This building was occupied as a barracks for soldiers of the United States invading army as soon as General Merritt took possession of the city.



VILLAGE ON THE ISLAND OF CAMAGUIN, PHILIPPINES

This island occupies a position directly between Mindanao and Bohol. It is not very large, but is exceedingly mountainous, and active volcanoes are to be found in its highest peaks, its sides fringed by forests. This was the first landing place of Legaspi on his voyage of conquest.



CORDAGE FACTORY OF SANTA MESA, NEAR MANILA

By all means the most important industry of the Philippine Islands is the cultivation of Manila hemp. Most of it, however, is shipped in the crude state to Europe and America for the manufacture of rope. There are but few cordage factories in the islands, and it would seem that this industry offers one of the best opportunities for profit to manufacturers of rope.

go a little ahead of the McCulloch's bow. The McCulloch now stopped and sent a six-pound shot at the battery, following it a minute later with another. The Spaniards answered this and once more the McCulloch sent a shot toward the vague, indistinct cloud of smoke showing against the dark hillside to the south. The Concord at this point fired a six-pound shot. All this time there is no sound from Corregidor, and it is a matter of surprise that shells have not been coming toward us from both sides. Then there comes quiet and the squadron gradually steams down the bay toward Manila. The Nanshan and Zafiro hug close to Corregidor while coming in and escape being fired on.

During the firing there was the best of order on the McCulloch, and no one seemed to lose his head. Chief Engineer Randall was overcome by a nervous shock, probably apoplectic in character, and at a few minutes after 2 o'clock he died. The orders have gone out from the flagship to proceed at a four-knot speed toward Cavite, the naval station, which is seventeen miles away at the head of the bay. This will put the fleet close to the Spanish squadron and the great battle will take place in the morning.

The men are now stretched out everywhere on their arms trying to sleep.

It is remarkable to see how little commotion is caused by the death of the chief engineer. The great dangers and thrilling events about to happen so completely overshadow the passing away of one man that the sad incident has created no stir. The body is sewed up in canvas and lies on a bier on the quarterdeck and will be buried at sea later in the day.

At 5:10 in the morning, just as dawn is breaking, the battle begins. By this time the American fleet has arrived off Cavite and the brightness of the approaching day reveals to both sides the position of the enemy. The Spanish immediately begin firing, but at a distance of nearly four miles. At the sound of the first shot the Olympia wheels and starts straight for the enemy. From every mast and every peak of the American squadron floats a flag, and the sight of all these fluttering emblems arouses an enthusiasm that never was experienced before. As the Olympia steams over toward the Spanish the Baltimore, Raleigh,

BEGINNING OF
THE
MORNING BATTLE.

Petrel, Concord and Boston follow in line of battle. The McCulloch is left to protect the transports.

Through the dimness of the early morning light the Spanish vessels can hardly be seen, but as minute after minute passes the ships and fortifications become more distinct. The Spanish are meeting the advances of the squadron with continuous firing from the ships and the forts.

So far there have been no answering shots from the American ships. They are steaming on, grim and determined, and making directly for the Spanish position.

At 5:23 the Olympia fired the first shot, and at 5:40 the firing became incessant. A battery at the mole, in Manila, and nearly five miles to the east, has now begun firing, and the Boston is occupied with shelling a fort on the mainland beyond the arsenal of Cavite. The Reina Cristina, which is the Spanish flagship, shows up black and fierce in front of the enemy's fleet. The Castilla is nearly abreast of her and is protected by large barges, which makes it impossible for shells to penetrate below the water line. The Don Antonio de Ulloa is a little behind the other two vessels. From Bakor bay, the naval anchorage, comes the fire from the Don Juan de Austria, a cruiser; the Isla de Luzon and Isla de Cuba, protected cruisers, and the Marques del Duero, Gen. Lezo, El Correo and Velasco. These latter vessels steam back and forth from the protection of the walls of the arsenal. Other smaller vessels, evidently torpedo boats, can be seen occasionally coming into view and then retreating behind the arsenal.

The American fleet now forms in a line, and, steaming in a wide circle, pours shells from the port and bow guns as the vessels pass. Then the ships swing around, and, continuing in the long ellipse, turn loose the guns of the stern and the starboard side. In this way all the guns on both sides of the warships are kept in action part of this time and the vessels are constantly moving. The fleet makes three complete circles, each time going in to shorter range, until a range of about 1,500 yards is reached.

There are numberless exhibitions of daring shown by the Spanish. At one time the Reina Cristina alone steamed out at full speed in the very face of the combined American fleet with the intention of running

the Olympia down. All the American vessels concentrated their guns on her and poured a perfect rain of shell through and around her. Still she came on. As she approached nearer the terrible storm of projectiles became too severe and realizing that the ship would be annihilated, the Admiral swung her slowly around and started for the protection of the navy yard. Just at this moment an eight-inch shell from the Olympia struck the Reina Cristina in the stern and went right through her. In a few minutes clouds of white smoke were seen coming from the ship. The vessel was being pounded to death by the shells. Her whole inside seemed afire, but still she kept on throwing shells. It seemed for a while that she must go down, or that the Spanish flag must be lowered, but at the very end through the smoke the pennant waved bravely from her main peak, and she continued to belch forth flashes of flame and billows of smoke.

Next two little torpedo boats started out in a desperate attempt to torpedo the Olympia. They came on rapidly, exposed to the fire of the American ships, and stopped to wait for the advancing Olympia. At this time the excitement on board the flagship was the greatest during any part of the engagement. The Olympia kept steaming on until within eight hundred yards of the torpedo boats and then, as the latter showed no signs of retreating, the flagship stopped and signaled the fleet to concentrate their fire on those little terrors. The hail of shell was fearful. Finally they turned and retreated. At this moment a large shell struck one of them, and it was seen to dive headlong into the sea, entirely disappearing from view. The other succeeded in regaining cover.

**BRAVE ASSAULTS
ON THE
OLYMPIA.**

A little while later when the American fleet is at the farthest point in its circle of evolution, a gunboat slips out from the Spanish stronghold and starts for the McCulloch, hoping evidently by this bold move to destroy the transports. As soon as this move is seen by Admiral Dewey the fire is immediately directed on the gunboat, and it returns to a safer place.

During the battle there are times when the American vessels pass between the Spanish forces and the McCulloch. This vessel protecting the transports lies about two miles from the fort and the Spanish ships.

At these times the McCulloch is in direct range of the enemy's fire. Shots scream through the rigging and fall into the water all around her. One shot strikes about forty feet in front of her bow.

During all this fearful cannonading Admiral Dewey with Flag Captain Lambertson stands on the bridge on the pilot house, absolutely exposed, while the Olympia goes through the storm of shells coming from the Spanish ships.

Now there are two vessels burning, the Reina Cristina and the Castilla, although both have their flags flying. The firing from these ships seems to be decreasing, but whenever the hope arises that they are completely disabled they seem to renew it with greater vigor. It is impossible to determine what damage is being done to either side. There seems to be no great destruction among the American vessels, for each time they revolve on that deadly ellipse the vessels all show up with flying colors and undiminished fire. Three times they make the deadly round, passing five times before the Spanish forces, each time drawing in closer and closer.

Now the Olympia has ceased firing and it is said her after turret is damaged. She withdraws and is followed by the rest of the squadron. The Spanish keep on firing with almost as much vigor as ever. It is now 7:45 o'clock, and the fight has lasted two and a half hours. During all this time there has been incessant firing and the whole sky is hazy with smoke. The tremendous resistance and striking courage of the Spanish is a revelation. A feeling of profound gloom comes over us as the American fleet withdraws for consultation. How much damage has been done is yet unknown and whether their decks are swimming in blood and their cabins choked with the wounded and dead and their guns battered are things that cannot be determined until the commanders return from the conference.

Then there comes a long wait. At last, after feverish anxiety, the marvelous news comes that not a single life has been lost and not a single man is seriously hurt. Not a single boat is badly injured and hardly a scrap of rigging is cut through.

At 10:45 o'clock, after a conference of the commanding officers, it is decided to attack again. The object in withdrawing, it transpires,

**A MOMENT
OF GLOOM TO
THE AMERICANS.**

was to allow the smoke to clear away and to enable the Admiral to determine what damage had been done to the fleet. When the astounding report came that there were no lives lost and no vessels damaged the enthusiasm on the different ships was wonderful, and ringing cheers rang throughout the fleet.

The Baltimore now headed for Cavite, rushing on at full speed, and did not stop until almost in the shadow of the forts. Then she began to fire with her big guns, mowing masts away and tearing holes in everything in sight. The Olympia followed and joined in the bombardment. The little Petrel came close behind, then the Concord, and last the Raleigh and Boston. The firing was incessant. The Spaniards answered vigorously and the dull, muffled thunder of the cannon came with the regularity of drum beats. The naval station was full of burning vessels. The Spanish flag still floated from the fort, but the Spanish firing at noon had nearly ceased. The Reina Cristina was red with flames and there was an explosion on her that must have been caused by the fire reaching one of her ammunition magazines, leaving her almost a complete wreck.

At 12:35 the Americans ceased firing, and for fifteen minutes the bay was almost silent. It was believed that the battle was over, although one Spanish flag was still flying above a small fortification. The Baltimore, which had done such valiant work during the last action, spread forth the largest flag in the service.

Orders were now sent out to enter the small bay back of the arsenal in Cavite and finish the work. The little Petrel, whose gallant conduct in the face of all those big guns that blazed away at her during the long hours of flying havoc, was so notable, steamed bravely on towards the very heart of the Spanish stronghold, occasionally spitting forth a shell as she went. At 12:45 it was signaled from shore that the Spanish had surrendered. Then there was great cheering on the victorious ships. The rigging was manned, banners fluttered, and every man's face showed the joy and exultation that he felt.

**GALLANT WORK
OF THE
PETREL.**

During the night of May 1, after the battle, the southern shores at and around Cavite are bright with the flames of burning ships. The Reina Cristina and Castilla are mere skeletons now, with flames tearing

through every part of them and making their bones show black against the white heat. There are constant explosions, either from the magazines of ships or mines or ammunition stores in the naval station. Back in the hills big columns of smoke are lazily lifting to the sky. Some of the explosions at Cavite are fearful. Flames leap hundreds of feet into the air and tremendous volumes of smoke rise in gigantic white billows. To the north and almost in every direction the curling smoke on the hillsides marks where the insurgents are applying the torch to complete what the Americans have left undone.

In Manila there is the sound of cathedral bells. It is reported that the Spanish have all withdrawn into the walled portion of the town and that the insurgents are coming in to loot the houses and kill the defenseless.

At 8 o'clock the McCulloch is signaled to approach within a few hundred feet of the city and guard the entrance to Pasig river. It is supposed that there are still one or two small river gunboats in the river, and the mission of the McCulloch is to intercept and destroy any that may attempt to slip out in the night. She advances and anchors directly opposite the Mole battery, where the big ten-inch Krupp guns are planted. The Esmeralda, which is anchored a few yards from the McCulloch, promptly lifts anchor and quits the vicinity. Almost immediately after the McCulloch's anchor is dropped two faint lights are reported as coming down the Pasig river. Guns are immediately manned and general quarters called. There is a time of almost breathless waiting, but as nothing hostile appears the tense excitement relaxes. General quarters is called later on in the night, but this is also in response to a false alarm.

The next morning the McCulloch raised anchor at the mouth of the Pasig river, and in response to a signal from the flagship returns and joins the squadron. At about 7 o'clock the Petrel, which has been at Cavite completing the destruction of half-destroyed ships, returns with six captured launches and small boats. She steams by proudly, and as she comes abreast the Olympia and McCulloch she is greeted with rousing cheers from those ships.

Smoke is now seen rising from the town of Manila, and it is thought that either the Spaniards are destroying their supplies or else the rebels

have begun their burning and pillaging. Smoke is also curling from many points in the outskirts of the city, and it may be necessary for the fleet to land marines to protect the Spanish and foreign residents. No answer has yet come from the captain-general in response to the message sent him yesterday by Admiral Dewey.

At 11:40 in the morning a small tug flying the Spanish flag aft and a flag of truce at her bow comes up to the flagship. It is not known what is its mission.

A little while after noon the Baltimore and Raleigh, the latter having the tug in tow, steams off toward Corregidor, seventeen miles away. The McCulloch is now sent over to Cavite with instructions to enter the harbor at Canacoa bay. She takes a position in the center of this little bay, where the bigger ships of the Spanish did most of their fighting. The Reina Cristina lies 200 yards to the right of us, the Castella the same distance behind us, and the Don Antonio de Ulloa 150 yards to our left. Only the masts and battered funnels and parts of shattered decks are above water, and over on the shore there are two smaller sailing boats toppled over in the shallow water. A single Spanish flag is still flying over a building at the head of the bay, but there are a number of white flags scattered around over the various government buildings, and several Red Cross ensigns wave above the hospitals and churches. There is scarcely any sign of life on shore and the day has a Sunday quiet that is impressive after the thrilling events of yesterday. A few figures can occasionally be seen, and the sight of some nuns conducting a funeral ceremony show that the shells of the Americans were deadly and desolating. Men can be observed carrying bundles and packages as if preparing to leave the place. There is a good deal of curiosity as to why that one persistent Spanish flag still flies over the town. Later a gig is sent from one of the squadron and soon after the flag is hauled down. The big guns of the battery are visible on our right hand a few hundred feet away. The walls of the fort on the left hand show marks of shells and are now still and deserted.

**AMONG THE
WRECKED
SPANISH VESSELS.**

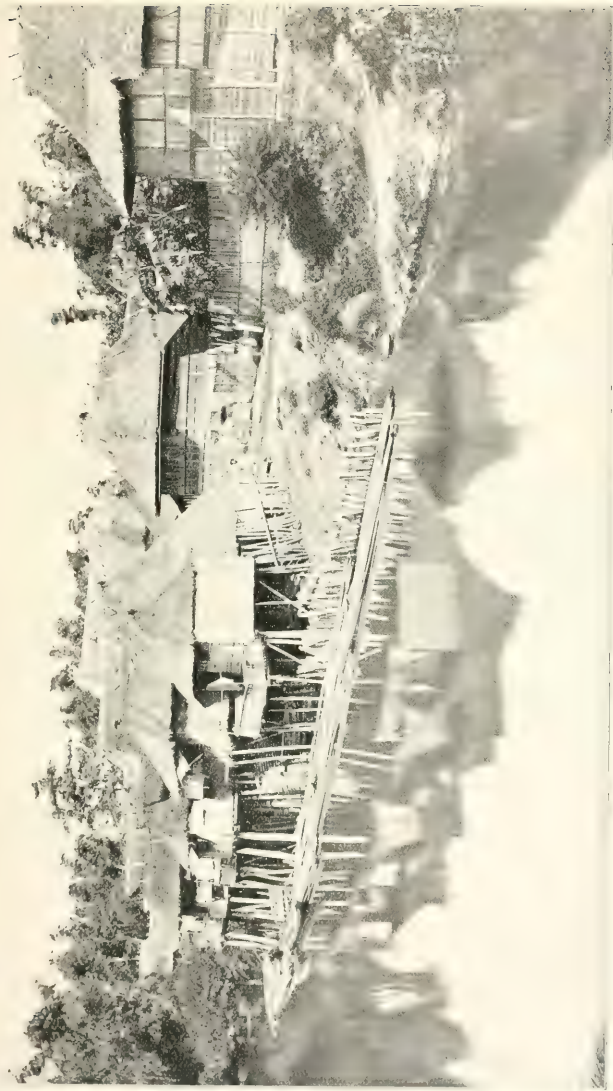
During the afternoon I took a dinghy and went among the wrecks in this bay. The Castilla shows only one upright funnel and two burnt and charred masts. The other funnel is leaning over against the stand-

ing one, and only a few inches of shattered and crushed rail shows above the water line. The insides are burned completely out, only the blackened iron work being visible. Eight six-inch guns stare out a little above the water and the breech ends are ruined by the flames. Other small millimeter guns and six-pounders are standing on the bow and after deck. The hull is still burning in one or two places where little patches of woodwork remain, and blue hazes of smoke lift lazily from the smoldering embers.

The *Reina Cristina*, the proudest ship of them all, and the flagship of Rear-Admiral Patricio Montojo y Pasaron, as well as the theater of some of the most daring fighting, lies a little farther away, as completely demolished as the *Castilla*. Her funnels are perforated and her rigging is cut and big gaping holes in the shattered steel framework show how accurate was the aim of the Americans. Some large eight-inch guns show above water and a number of small guns still stand fore and aft. A little fire is burning on her and the body of a Spaniard is lying half-way out of a gun barbette, his legs shot off and big slashing wounds in his hip. He is absolutely nude except for a narrow belt, and has apparently been untouched by fire. It was in this ship that so many died, and the hull must be choked with those who fell before the sweeping gale of steel poured into her. In a day or two the bodies will be coming to the surface. A live chicken is perched on a stanchion at the bow. How in the world it lived through the fire is a wonder, for the vessel is absolutely gutted.

The *Antonio de Ulloa* is almost entirely under water, but even then she has more unsubmerged parts than either of the other two. Her forecastle is above water, as well as her chartroom. The three masts still stand and are splintered by shells. Her rigging is shattered in many places and two small guns are visible on the forward deck. Boat-loads of officers and seamen have been to her all afternoon searching for souvenirs of the battle. Scraps of signal and boat flags, charts, books, small anchors and dozens of little relics have been eagerly seized. Sailors have been diving down and bringing up all sorts of trophies, from clocks and compasses to chairs and capstan heads. A piece of a guitar was found. Only the fretted finger stock remained, and it was evidently

**DESTRUCTION
OF
FINE CRUISERS.**



SANTA ANA, ONE OF THE SUBURBS OF MANILA

The city of Manila occupies a large area in proportion to its size, being scattered in every direction from the commercial center. Out-
side of the city itself, numerous suburban villages, mostly devoted to the homes of the native laboring classes, are found in every direction,
and afford picturesque views for the tourist.



COMMON MODE OF PUNISHMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES AND LADRONE ISLANDS

Although the Spanish criminal code has been transferred in some degree to the Spanish colonies of the East, yet novel methods of punishment have been introduced that would be more deterrent to crime, because of their simplicity, than more civilized methods in vogue in Western nations. The illustration shows one form of punishment that may be seen frequently among the islands.

smashed by its devoted owner to prevent the invading vandals of America from capturing it. The *Ulloa* was a wooden ship and after the enemy found her range she must have been smashed to pieces in a very short time.

While I was there a fearful explosion occurred on shore 200 yards away. At first it was thought fire had been opened again, but subsequently it was learned that a boat's crew from the *Olympia* had landed and were blowing up the big guns at the battery.

The scene of complete desolation in this bay was thought to be the very worst, but a trip to the waters beyond the arsenal revealed even greater havoc and ruin. This is *Bakor* bay and is the principal anchorage of the naval station. There are seven warships, ranging from 800 tons up to 1,500 tons, scattered about in this cove, all sunken, and most of them charred by flames. One ship, the transport *Manila*, still floats and is apparently uninjured. A number of live cattle are on board, as well as some sheep and other provisions for the Spanish. The name plates of the wrecks are either gone or submerged, but it is known that among them is the cruiser *Don Juan of Austria*, the protected cruisers *Isla de Luzon* and *Isla de Cuba*, the gunboats *Marques del Ducro*, *Gen. Lezo*, *El Correo* and *Velasco*.

These ships were among the finest of their class in the Spanish navy and enough remains to indicate what excellently armed and carefully cared for vessels they were. A number of six-inch guns are still above water and seem to be in good condition. Some of these have lost their breech plugs and it is probable the Spaniards threw them overboard before abandoning the vessels. All show signs of the shelling, but it is doubtful whether the cannonading sunk them. It is thought they were fired when the Spanish abandoned them, and it is known that the *Petrel* set fire to some of them after the battle.

From the day of the battle of Manila bay the work of the blockade was sometimes dull and sometimes exciting, but the duties were just as important under both conditions. Affairs were in considerable doubt in many details. Insurgents and Spaniards were busily at war on the shores surrounding the bay. It was unknown how soon the troopships from San Francisco, with American soldiers aboard, would reach the

**BUSY TIMES
AFTER
THE BATTLE.**

place. Every vessel that came within sight of the harbor entrance had to be intercepted and questioned. Men-of-war of the English, German, French and Japanese navy gradually gathered in the bay until there was a formidable fleet lying in the shadow of the American guns. Target practice kept up in order that the men on shipboard should not be too restless, and should not lose familiarity with the guns with which they had done such notable execution. Conditions were strained, but they had to be faced, and those weeks of waiting before the army came were almost as trying on commanders and men alike as the great battle itself.

The insurgents were by no means idle during this period. In years to come, if the fond hopes of the Filipinos are to be realized, the 12th of June will be an occasion of rejoicing and jubilee. It will be to the natives of these islands what the Fourth of July is to the Americans. The declaration of independence will be read to the school children, every house will be gay with Filipino flags, and the sounds of parading bands will share the honors with the noisy firecracker and the soaring skyrocket. It will become such an institution that the daily papers will speak familiarly of it as the "Glorious Twelfth," and on the morning of the 13th there will be a great deal of fire news.

On the afternoon of June 12 the formation of a provisional government was officially proclaimed in Old Cavite. A large crowd of natives, numbering between five and six thousand, were gathered in the wide streets of the village, and the principal avenue was gay with triumphal arches. Hastily extemporized flags of the country were liberally displayed from the windows, and on the housetops, and a band of music enlivened the eventful occasion. Delegates from the eight provinces of Luzon island were present to represent the Filipinos of those districts. Nearly a thousand insurgent soldiers were drawn up in long columns near the old church and the presence of these added a touch of military impressiveness to the scene. A stand had been erected from which the different addresses were made, and prominent leaders of the movement were on hand to add the necessary oratory to the occasion.

A declaration of independence was read and General Emilio Aguinaldo was elected president of the new republic. Nearly all the official

addresses were made in two languages, Spanish and Tagala, and there was a generous sprinkling of applause during their delivery. The general was not present at the time. It was not considered wise to expose him to the possibility of being assassinated, and so he remained in his headquarters in Cavite. Colonel Johnson, an American army officer, who is now in command of the ordnance of the insurgent forces, was greeted with the greatest enthusiasm. He was borne aloft on the shoulders of demonstrative natives, and on account of his nationality was taken to symbolize the co-operation of the United States in the new movement of independence. Marian Ito Trias was elected vice-president, and Balinero Aguinaldo was proclaimed minister of finance. Daniel Pirondo was made minister of war. During the forenoon General Aguinaldo held a reception at Cavite to the delegates of the provinces and to prominent officers of his army.

**INSURGENT
GOVERNMENT
ORGANIZED.**

The insurgent operations were still being carried on with the greatest vigor and with unvaried success. San Fernando and Macabaebe, in Pampangas province, was captured after a long and obstinate resistance. General Ricardo Monet, one of the best fighters on the Spanish side, was killed. Forty officers and soldiers of his force were also killed and between 1,000 and 1,200 captured. The insurgent loss was less and was not given out at Aguinaldo's headquarters. The wife and children of General Monet were taken prisoners. This decisive fight resulted in the absolute overthrow of all the Spanish force in that province and its complete acquisition by the insurgents.

The subjection of the Spaniards in Pampangas province took nearly three weeks of hard fighting. The insurgents under command of Maximo Hisson defeated the Spanish forces at Angeles and Bacolor and finally surrounded them in the two towns of San Fernando and Macabaebe. The latter place was assailed so vigorously that the force attacked attempted to join the other force in San Fernando. The decisive battle took place on Wednesday, the 15th, on the road between these two places.

The wife and five children of Governor-General Augusti were captured near Macabaebe.

The insurgents felt that under the circumstances there would be

a cessation of Spanish cruelty to insurgent prisoners of war. Governor-General Augusti would hesitate to inflame the Filipinos by unnecessary cruelty so long as the fate of his wife and children rests with the insurgent leader. General Aguinaldo said that the kindest treatment would be accorded these prisoners, and justified himself in detaining them by the thought that the Spaniards will be more merciful to Filipinos prisoners hereafter. He had sent word on more than one occasion that he would kill a Spanish officer for every insurgent prisoner executed by the Spaniards in Manila, but this threat has not been effective. Sympathizers with the rebels have been executed in Manila with hardly any provocation. The uncle of Mr. Arivelo, one of Aguinaldo's staff, was shot in Tondo, and as a consequence the feeling against the Spaniards was very bitter at the insurgent headquarters.

On the evening of June 20 the insurgents succeeded in taking some trenches near Malate. This position was assailed for several days, and as it commands the road and approaches to the fort was of great importance. It was given out that all the insurgent force would attack Tondo, a suburb of Manila, on the same day and would be met by 4,000 Spanish troops. This engagement was not fought.

General Aguinaldo removed his headquarters from where he first established them to larger and more commodious ones. The building he now occupies was formerly the official residence of the governor of Cavite. It is a beautiful place, with an immense courtyard. When the governor occupied it Aguinaldo was engaged in a bushwhacking warfare against Spain out in the country back of Cavite. The conditions were now reversed. The governor, Brigadier-General Penas, was a prisoner only a few doors from where the insurgent headquarters are, while the former rebel leader sits in the governor's palace, surrounded by his staff and followers.

The governor-general at Manila refused to treat with Aguinaldo in any way or acknowledge his leadership of the insurgents. An instance

**AGUINALDO
AND THE
SPANISH.**

of his pride and haughtiness was shown. He wished to have the wounded Spaniards in Cavite removed to Manila, but he did not wish to be put in the position of asking a favor of Aguinaldo. So he got the British consul at Manila to make the request in his own

name, and sent three surgeons under a Red Cross flag and with this order to Cavite.

Two steam launches towing two barges came from Manila to Cavite. The Spanish doctors in charge of the mission were Don Juan Domingues Borrajo, Don Jose Balderrama and Don Luis Ledesma. Their crews were Spanish, and natives from Manila. When the surgeons presented the letter from the British consul, Aguinaldo refused to consider it. He felt that such a request should come from some one in Spanish authority, and realized the motives that actuated the governor in refusing to give the mission an official character. He finally agreed, however, after a long discussion, to send the wounded Spaniards to Manila. One hundred and eighty-five of these were placed on the barges and preparations were made to return to Manila. It was then discovered that all the Spanish and native crews had deserted, probably with the intention of joining the insurgents. They had had enough of Manila, for the suffering in the city had become extreme since the rebels had surrounded the city. The Spanish doctors were obliged to return to Manila without their crews. It was further noticed that only the most desperately wounded were allowed to be taken, and those who gave promise of an early recovery were held in Cavite.

On June 9 the governor of Batangas was captured. At the same time Colonel Blasques and one commandant, 39 officers and 500 soldiers laid down their arms to the Filipinos. This surrender is remarkable from the fact that only 240 insurgents, under Colonel Eluterio Malasigan, effected the capture. Three hundred and thirty-nine of these prisoners were transported to Cavite on the rebel steamers Bulusan and Faleero.

In Pampanga there was a good deal of fighting. The Spanish force of 300 men was driven from Angeles and Bacolor, and retreated to San Fernando and Macabaebe. When they left Bacolor they burned the town. At Angeles the Spaniards placed women and small children in front of their ranks to prevent the insurgents firing on them, but they were eventually routed. In all the operations in this district there have been only 200 insurgents engaged. The commander of this force is Colonel Maximo Hisson.

According to General Aguinaldo's statement on June 14 there were

6,500 insurgents under his command. Of this number 6,000 were armed with rifles and 500 with machetes. Nearly 4,000 were in the neighborhood of Manila, and all the fighting was converging to that point. The city was practically surrounded, and very little, if any, food was getting through the ranks and reaching the people in Manila. The insurgents' force around Manila and the approaches to it numbered nearly 4,000 men.

Such were the conditions which led up to the time of the arrival of the army of occupation by the troopships which sailed from San Francisco, bringing the men who were to do the land fighting, and take the city of Manila.

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL MERRITT AND THE AMERICAN OCCUPATION OF MANILA.

Appointment of a Commander for the Expedition to the Philippines—Conditions in the Blockading Fleet While Awaiting the Army—Germany Sends a Strong Squadron—Arrival of the Transports—American Soldiers in Cavite—Spanish and Americans in Night Battle Near Malate—Demand for the Surrender of Manila—Reply of the Captain-General—Beginning the Battle—Brave Deeds of Our Soldiers—Surrender of the City—The Insurgents—General Merritt's Report.

WITH little delay after the receipt of news of Admiral Dewey's victory, Major-General Wesley Merritt was appointed to the command of the military expedition to the Philippines. San Francisco was chosen as the place of rendezvous and departure for the forces to be sent across the Pacific ocean. General Merritt desired that as large a part as possible of his force be made up of regulars, as it was known that the Spanish soldiers in the Philippines were the pick of the Castilian army. Nevertheless, the need of picked men of our regiments for the Cuban campaign was equally imperative, so in the end, volunteers predominated among those who were sent to San Francisco.

In the city by the Golden Gate thousands of men gathered during May and June, encamping in the beautiful military reservation known as the Presidio, where they were drilled energetically and instructed in all details possible of the service that was to be required of them. Most of the volunteers assigned to the Philippine expedition were those in the regiments from the western states, in order to shorten the railway journey necessary to bring them to the port of embarkation. The Pacific ports were ransacked by quartermasters-general in order to find transports for the long voyage; but at last all preparations were complete and the expeditions began to sail to the support of Dewey.

While waiting for the army to reach Manila, two topics absorbed all the curiosity and gossip on the American ships. One was the arrival of the Charleston and the troopships from San Francisco, the other the gradual concentration of a powerful German fleet in Manila bay.

**LIFE ON
THE BLOCKADE
STATION.**

Seven German warships out of eight that Germany has in the far east were there, with Vice-Admiral Von Diederichs, who commands the Asiatic squadron. The significance of this demonstration created a good deal of speculation and concern.

When it is considered that Germany, Austria and Portugal delayed their expressions of neutrality to an alarming limit, the massing of German ships at this critical time was regarded as being significant. According to an unwritten law of international courtesy it is unusual for more than two or three ships of a foreign power to gather in a blockaded port. The German interests in Manila are not so extensive as to require a great force to protect them. It was equally improbable that the Germans were there merely to witness the last act of Admiral Dewey's brilliant tragedy. The theory of curiosity could hardly justify them in leaving Kiou-Chou at a time when the Russian and English relations are so strained.

Vice-Admiral Von Diederichs said Germany was making a demonstration here in Manila bay for the purpose of benefiting the trade relations between Manila and his own country. The exact connection between cause and effect in this instance is somewhat obscure.

The Spaniards in Manila, according to the *Diario de Manila*, looked on the Germans as being their friends and sympathizers, and the advent of Germany's fleet as encouragement to Spanish interests. The Germans saluted the Spanish flag on several occasions after Admiral Dewey established his blockade. This was either an evidence of friendliness to Spain or an exhibition of great indifference to propriety, for all foreign ships in a blockaded port are allowed to enter and remain through the sufferance and courtesy of the admiral commanding the blockading fleet. Neither the English nor French saluted the Spanish flag, and only in one instance did the Japanese salute it.

The story of a day in a blockaded port is an interesting one. Sometimes it may become dull and monotonous, but there always exists the



STREET IN NATIVE QUARTER OF ILOILO

The group of cocoanut palms at the right, with the peculiar ox-carts beneath them, and of native children on the left, standing by the pole which props their house, are striking features of this Philippine landscape.



IN THE SUBURBS OF ILOILO, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The winding village street here pictured is characteristic of many in the East Indian Islands. The gateway to the cemetery appears just beyond a house on the left.



NATIVE HARPIST OF THE PHILIPPINES

The Filipinos are intensely musical in their tastes, and the harp is one of their favorite instruments



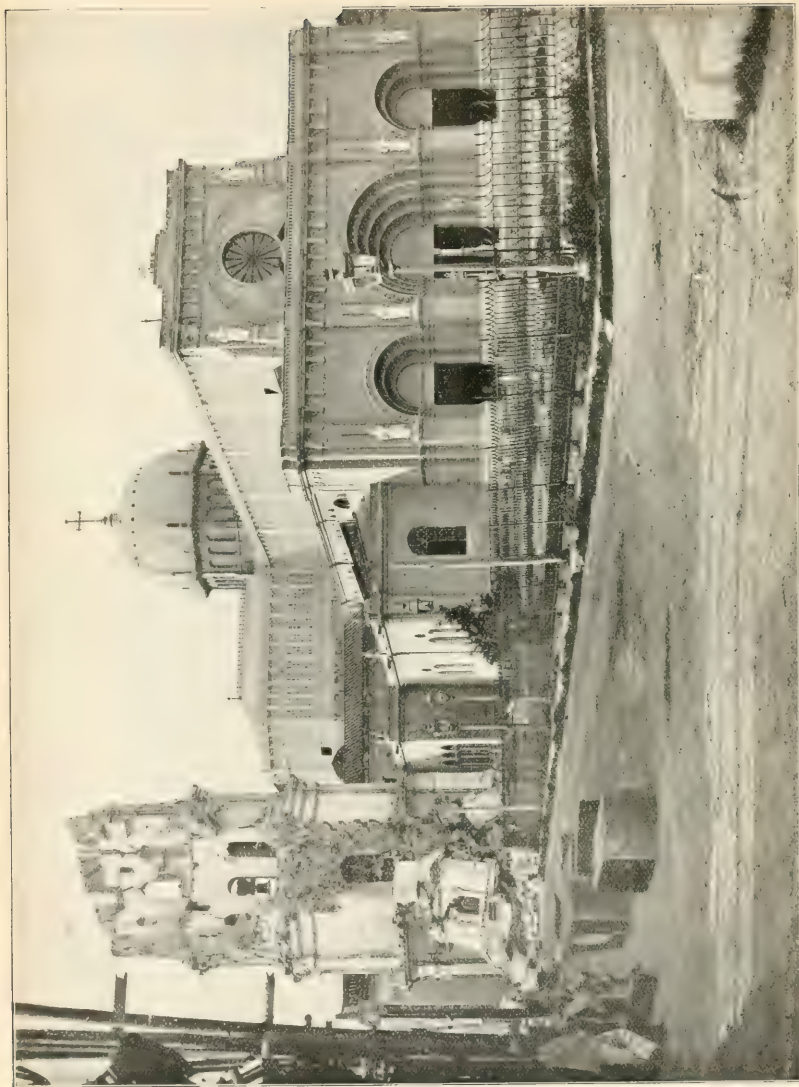
NEGRITOS IN THE ISLAND OF LUZON

These are types of the aboriginal savages of the Philippines, which now are becoming extinct with considerable rapidity



NATIVE HOUSES IN THE SUBURBS OF MANILA

There is a general similarity in the residences whether large or small, in the Philippine Islands. Nevertheless, each village or street has its individual characteristics and interesting features. This street is one of the poorer ones in the suburbs of Manila.



CATHEDRAL WITHIN THE CITY WALLS, MANILA

The Philippine Islands have suffered severely from earthquakes many times, and this picture shows the results of one of those convulsions of nature. The ruins have been cleared away, so that the visitor to-day sees the cathedral instead of the fragments of the tower.

possibility that something exciting may suddenly happen. In the blockade before Manila there were a number of features which made it unique and alone. The warfare being waged between the Spaniards and insurgents on the shores around the bay gave constant touches of excitement, while the frequent squalls incident to the commencement of the south-west monsoon made life on the fleet full of interesting danger. Nearly every day the sound of skirmishing came from the fringe of trees that lined the shores, and nearly every day came those fearful torrents of rain that mark the beginning of the rainy season. The Philippines are the birthplaces of the dreadful typhoons which have made navigation on the China sea so full of danger to mariners. Manila is the home of the earthquake and the abiding place of the hot weather. Added to these natural perils was the constant menace of torpedoes which overhung the blockaders. There were two torpedo boats in the Pasig river, which rendered every precaution necessary on the American ships, and made every night fraught with the possibility of an attack from one of them.

It was two months after Dewey's victory that the first expedition of General Merritt's army of occupation reached Manila. These troopships under General Thomas Anderson came on June 30; the next, under General Frank V. Greene, arrived July 17; General Merritt himself came on July 25, and when General McArthur's quota arrived on July 30, the force was considered complete, although it has been re-enforced often since then.

**ARRIVAL OF
THE
TROOPSHIPS.**

Said John T. McCutcheon, who had been with Dewey from the beginning, after the first troops arrived and disembarked from the transports after their long voyage across the Pacific:

"Cavite is one of the busiest places in the world just now. Twenty-five hundred soldiers have been dropped down in the town, and there has been a hard struggle to find quarters and establish order out of chaos. Boatload after boatload landed, with big boxes of supplies and cases of ammunition, and men have dumped them down near the landing. The soldiers have been assigned to different quarters in the old Spanish barracks, the officers have picked out choice headquarters and things are rapidly getting settled down to a business basis. But com-

pared with those other days, when a handful of marines represented the American force of arms in Cavite, the present situation is tremendously lively. On every hand are sentries marching back and forth, little squads of men are cleaning up and distributing boxes of provisions, the band is playing in the little plaza near the commandant's residence, target practice has been inaugurated and there is getting to be some system and regularity about meal hours.

"The insurgents crowd around and watch wonderingly the deliberate preparations for active service that are going on in Cavite and marvel at the size of most of the California and Oregon giants. The Americans out here are truly a ferocious-looking lot, with their unshaven faces, rough brown service uniforms and wild-west hats. One would im-

**RENEWED
ACTIVITY
AT CAVITE.**

agine one's self to be in a western mining camp. Down near the landing wharf the soldiers are cutting up beef for distribution. Crowds of them are lounging around, smoking or trying marvelous Spanish on the natives.

Some of them are reading, and in nearly every window of the barracks can be seen men writing letters to go by to-morrow's steamer. A little farther along is the commandant's palace, where General Merritt will probably be quartered. Across the way is the boat slip and repair shop, where there is now a force of men engaged in making waterspouts to catch rainwater for drinking purposes. Down a long line of trees in front of the commandant's palace are the low-typical Spanish quarters, used originally by the officers of the guard, but now occupied by Colonel Smith, Colonel Duboce and other officers. Just in front of these quarters is the little plaza, with the statue of El Cano in the center.

"There are beautiful trees scattered about in the plaza, and through the branches can be seen the wreck-specked waters of Bakor bay. In this plaza the United States regulars' regimental band plays in the afternoon to delighted audiences of scantily clad natives and big, husky soldier boys. Over at the corner of the plaza is General Anderson's headquarters, formerly the Ayudante mayor's home and office. It is, like all the government buildings in Cavite, very beautiful and cool-looking. Immense shade trees surround it, and the spreading leaves of palm trees give it an absolutely tropical appearance. Further down the avenue of trees is the gate separating the officers' quarters from

the 'Enfermeria,' or hospital, and infantry quarters. Only a few men are now on the sick list. In the infantry quarters there are several hundred men established, and little detachments are almost constantly marching back and forth from drills or camp work.

"As there are usually fifty or a hundred men with liberty leave, nearly every shop in Cavite has one or two big, rough-looking soldiers sitting in it, learning Spanish by association, and flirting violently with scantily clad, brown-eyed Filipino girls.

"Out in the parade ground there are drills twice a day, between 7 and 8 in the morning and 5 and 6 in the evening, weather permitting. All drilling and heavy work is suspended in the middle of the day on account of the heat. However, the weather has not been disagreeably warm during the last two weeks, but the exertion of carrying heavy Springfields and drill accouterments would be very trying on men who are not equipped with light tropical uniforms. A hundred or more tents have been put up on one side of the parade ground to dry and clear out the must. Everything becomes musty and mildewed here in a day or two, and clothes must be constantly aired to prevent their spoiling."

The first clash of arms between Spanish and American land forces in the Philippines resulted in the killing of ten Americans and the wounding of forty-three. The Spanish loss was not known. The conflict occurred late in the night of July 31. It was the result of a reputed effort on the part of the enemy to flank the American trenches near Malate, an effort which failed, if, indeed, it was ever intended. The fight was a vicious one, but the men who were having their baptism of fire never flinched. They showed the stuff of which they were made, as truly as they did two weeks later when Manila was the objective point.

**FIRST
LAND FIGHTING
AT MALATE.**

When finally the men of the three fleets of troopships were disembarked and placed in position, General Merritt calculated that the time had come for final action. He had about 8,500 men in position to attack the city of Manila. He and Admiral Dewey united in a joint letter to the Spanish commander-in-chief, under date of August 7, notifying him that operations might begin at any time after forty-eight hours, or

sooner if made necessary by an attack on his part, and that all non-combatants might therefore be removed from the city.

In replying, Governor-General Jaudenes said in part: "As your notice is sent for the purpose of providing for the safety of non-combatants, I give thanks to your excellencies for the humane sentiment you have shown, and state that, finding myself surrounded by insurrectionary forces, I am without places of refuge for the increased number of wounded, sick, women and children who are now lodged within the walls."

Two days later a second letter was sent to the captain-general by Admiral Dewey and General Merritt, reading as follows:

"The Governor-General and Captain-General of the Philippines.

"Sir: The inevitable suffering in store for the wounded, sick, women and children, in the event that it becomes our duty to reduce the defenses of the walled town in which they are gathered, will, we feel assured, appeal successfully to the sympathies of a general capable of making the determined and prolonged resistance which your excellency has exhibited after the loss of your naval forces and without hope of succor.

**AMERICANS
DEMAND
SURRENDER.**

"We therefore submit, without prejudice to the high sentiments of honor and duty which your excellency entertains, that, surrounded on every side as you are by a constantly increasing force, with a powerful fleet in your front and deprived of all prospect of reinforcement and assistance, a most useless sacrifice of life would result in the event of an attack, and therefore every consideration of humanity makes it imperative that you should not subject your city to the horrors of a bombardment. Accordingly, we demand the surrender of the city of Manila and the Spanish forces under your command."

As the time approached marking the expiration of the forty-eight-hour respite granted to Manila by General Merritt and Admiral Dewey, before the attack the enthusiasm on the ships was tremendous. Men on the sick list begged to be taken off and those who were unfit for heavy work asked to be assigned to lighter duties. Men who would have been hopelessly ill if the ship was to be coaled now developed wonderful vitality and convalescence. A few thoughtful ones got their farewell letters written, but the great majority prepared for a picnic.

It was announced that the navy and army would get under headway Wednesday noon, August 10. General orders were issued and the

refuge ships and foreign war vessels anchored off the city began to move away to positions of safety. Ten or twelve refuge ships thronged with women and children from Manila were taken down the bay and anchored in Mariveles bay, safe alike from vagrant shells and scenes of flying havoc. The foreign war vessels moved out of range. The German admiral sent word asking Admiral Dewey where he should anchor, and was told that he might anchor any place he chose so long as he was not in range. Then came a curious thing. The English ships—the *Immortalite*, *Iphigenia*, *Pygmy* and *Plover*—and the Japanese ship, the *Naniwa*, steamed over and joined the American ships at their anchorage off Cavite. The German and French warships withdrew in an opposite direction until they were well out of range. There could hardly have been a more eloquent exposition of the sympathetic leanings of the different nations, and the English, American and Japanese alliance which has been so frequently mentioned of late seemed a reality here in Manila bay.

At 9 o'clock on the morning of August 10 all was suppressed excitement. The ships were stripped and only the work of taking down the awnings remained. This was soon done and the steam in the engines was strengthened for the work of turning the heavy screws.

Shortly before 10 o'clock General Merritt came aboard and asked for a delay, stating that the army was not ready. The disappointment that this caused was extreme and the line that is said to be drawn between the navy and army was never before so sharp and vivid. The last dispatches had indicated that peace was so imminent that already every ship that came into the bay was apprehensively regarded as a probable bearer of the unwelcome news that hostilities should cease. To those who had lived on shipboard for months just in sight of the city lights the thought of being denied the pleasure of riding up and down the Lunetta was something very dire.

**ARMY SLOWER
THAN
THE NAVY.**

The fleet was signaled to bank fires and the commanders and captains were told that twenty-four hours' notice would be given before a general movement would be made. The *Baltimore* then began coaling from the *Cyrus*, and the situation seemed to have relaxed from the critical to the commonplace routine of the old blockading days.

On Friday, August 12, orders were sent out for all ships to prepare to get under way at 9 o'clock the following morning. The army was ready. Saturday, August 13, was the day of the taking of Manila.

The army was divided into two brigades. General Greene had the 2d brigade and his men were strung along on the extreme right extending to the beach. As his advance fighting line he had the Utah light artillery, with Captains Grant and Young; the 1st Colorado, under Colonel Irving Hale, and a battalion of the 3d artillery. The last-named, although in the firing line, was not under fire. Back of the firing line, in immediate support, was the 2d battalion of the 1st California, under Colonel Smith and Major Sime. As reserves there were the 18th United States infantry, 1st California, 1st Nebraska, 10th Pennsylvania and a battalion of United States engineers.

The 1st brigade, under General MacArthur, further inland, was distributed in a similar manner as firing line and reserves. The Astor battery, 13th Minnesota and 23d infantry were in front, with one battalion of the 14th infantry, two battalions of the 1st North Dakota, two battalions of the 1st Idaho and one battalion of the 1st Wyoming as reserves and support.

The Spanish line of defenses consisted of a continuous intrenchment, broken by three strongholds—the fort at Malate, blockhouse 14 and the fortified English cemetery. General Greene's brigade was to attack and take the first and strongest, while General MacArthur's brigade was to attack the blockhouse and cemetery. The entire field of operations hardly covered more than a square mile, but the Amer-

**SPANISH
DEFENSES
WELL PLANNED.**

icans had a fearful country to fight in. Barb-wire fences, bamboo jungles, paddy fields, swamps, streams and sharpened pickets had to be passed before reaching the Spanish line. The taking of the trenches and fort at Malate by the 1st Colorado was the most brilliant and spectacular act of the day, but a savage ambushade over at Singalon, near blockhouse 14, was the most deadly, for four men were killed in the Astor battery and 13th Minnesota and 23d infantry, while nearly thirty were wounded. Had it not been for the timely advance of the 13th Minnesota and 23d artillery the Astor battery would have been almost wiped out.

The most striking features about the character of the land fight of August 13 were the advance of the Americans through the almost impassable country, the routing of the Spaniards from the trenches and the driving of the latter back into the city in face of a house-to-house potshot resistance, and finally the stand taken by the Americans and Spaniards to prevent the insurgents entering the city. There probably was never a case in history before where two opposing forces combined on the overthrow of one to make a common defense against a third.

Early in the morning the two brigades began the advance from Camp Dewey. Every man carried rations for one day and went in light marching order. The story told by Major Bell of the bureau of information, who acted as one of General Greene's aids during the day, gives a good idea of the operations of the 2d brigade. The men in the camp were up at 5 o'clock, ready for the start.

General Babcock arrived from the Newport soon after the main body of troops had advanced from the camp, and he and Major Bell followed on horseback, soon passing the troops. Major Bell, sheltered by clumps of bamboo, crept up from the farthest American trench, where the Utah artillery, the 1st Colorado and a battalion of the 3d artillery were waiting the order to attack, along the beach to a position barely 500 yards from the fort at Malate, to make a reconnoissance of the Spanish guns. Two days before he had done the same and had reported that one of the Spanish guns had been removed. On this latter reconnoissance it was his object to determine where that gun had been placed.

Orders were then given for four companies of the 1st Colorado to begin an advance. Two companies, C and D, were sent out in front of the trenches, and two others, I and K, were sent along the beach under cover of the fire of companies C and D. As C and D took their places out in a skirmish line in front of the trench, I and K, advancing from the rear of the trenches, proceeded along in the surf at the beach, wading an intervening stream and boldly entering the fort. Companies C and D fell in behind; then came the 2d battalion of the 1st California, under Colonel Smith and Major Sime, who were in reserve behind the firing line, but who advanced directly behind the Colorado

RACING
FOR A
SPANISH FLAG.

troops. Major Bell was ahead of the Colorado soldiers, bent on reaching the fort first to take down the Spanish flag, but, the Spanish opening fire from their intrenchments, he was called back to allow the Colorados to fire several volleys. This cost him the flag, for Colonel McCoy and Adjutant Brooks, in the van of their troops, reached the Spanish position, dashed over the trenches, followed by a rushing mass of Colorado men, plunged into the old fort and took down the Spanish flag and hauled up the American. Just behind the Colorado men came the regimental band, wading the stream and playing their instruments with wonderful persistence and questionable harmony. The band made the hit of the day. The Colorado troops then began an advance toward the city, but the 1st California, by not stopping at the fort, had passed them and were carrying everything before them in a rush down through Malate, with the Spaniards retreating in broken order and firing from dooryards and windows and from the protection of houses. A heavy fire met the 1st Colorados after passing the fort and seemed to come from the marshes over to the right of the road. It was in this fire that Charles Phoenix of company I was killed and several others were wounded.

The four companies of the 1st California proceeded on through the Calle Real in Malate, Colonel Smith dropping guards at every house flying the English flag, to protect it from the insurgents, who were scrambling along in the wake of the Californians' victorious advance. The insurgents were firing as they came along. It was here that Major Jones of the transportation department and Interpreter Finlay distinguished themselves. The insurgent firing had become hot for even the Americans, and Major Jones took an American flag, planted himself in the middle of the road and with drawn revolver stopped the entire advance of the insurgents.

Captain O'Connor, with a small guard, advanced to the very city walls in the face of large bodies of Spanish soldiers and posted himself on the Puente Espana, the principal bridge of the city, leading from the business section to the walled city.

The Californians advanced to the road leading around the walled city and intercepted the insurgents who were flocking in along the road from Santa Ana. The latter were firing on the retreating Spaniards,



ON CORREGIDOR ISLAND, ENTRANCE TO MANILA BAY

The little island of Corregidor became familiar to all readers of newspapers during the progress of the war in the Philippine Islands. Its position at the mouth of the outlet harbor of Manila made it of great importance during the operations of Admiral Dewey in those waters.



A FREIGHT TRAIN IN THE PHILIPPINES

Primitive methods of transportation still prevail in the islands, and there is ample opportunity for American development of this industry.



A HARROW IN THE PHILIPPINES

An observation of the rude agricultural methods employed in these islands is convincing of the fact that even greater riches await the development of the industry by modern improved methods.

and the Californians came in direct line of the fire. The Spaniards were returning the insurgent fire, and the Americans were between the two forces. It was here that Private Dunmore of company B, 1st California, was killed and H. Ammerson wounded. The California men held their fire, and by doing so avoided a general conflict which would have been as disastrous as it would have been useless. The insurgent advance was stopped. Colonel Smith then advanced to the roads leading from Paco and stopped another troop of insurgents who were attempting to enter the walled city. One pompous insurgent in a gorgeous uniform announced that they were going on, but when Major Bell drew his revolver and threatened to kill any one attempting to pass, the insurgent officer became submissive and polite. The Americans then formed in line and forced the insurgents up the street and into a side street. They next attempted to get in by another street, but were forestalled.

**INSURGENTS
REQUIRE
SOME ATTENTION.**

General Greene came up under a scattering fire with his staff and met a Spanish official who awaited him at one of the gates of the city. The general entered the city alone with the Spaniards and the arrangements for the occupation were made. Over to the north of the city there was hot fighting between the insurgents and the Spaniards, but the latter held them back. The Spaniards in those trenches remained at their guns, resisting the insurgents, until 7 P. M. the following day, and were among the last who gave up their arms. They complained at being compelled to fight after the city had surrendered.

General MacArthur's brigade was having a hot fight over in the Singalon district. The Spanish deserted their trenches at the advance of the Americans, but retreated to dense clumps of bamboos and ambuscaded the Americans as the latter advanced. It was in this ambuscade that August Thollen of the 23d infantry, Sergeants Cremins and Holmes of the Astor battery and Archie Patterson of the 13th Minnesota were killed and a great number wounded. The Minnesota men, the Astor battery and the 23d infantry did brilliant work in this section, and their record in the fight is the most brilliant of the day.

As MacArthur's brigade in regular order swept the Spaniards out of blockhouse No. 14 and the English cemetery, driving them back, the

brigade fell in behind General Greene's brigade and entered Malate from the east.

The Assault as Seen from the Ocean.

At 9 o'clock sharp the Olympia's engines began to throb, and as the flagship moved slowly forward the knotted balls of bunting that clung close to the topmost masthead and peak of all the ships were broken out and the national ensign burst forth in all the radiance of new and virgin color.

The Charleston, which had been lying near Malate for several days, steamed slowly over and joined the squadron, and a few minutes more saw the Olympia, Baltimore, Monterey, Charleston, Boston, Petrel, Raleigh, McCulloch, Callao, Barcelo, Zafiro and the Kwonghoi bearing off toward Malate. It was a magnificent sight, and the big lead-colored ships maneuvering for their permanent formation, with their streaming banners, must have furnished topics for the Spaniards in Manila to write home about. When the Olympia passed the Immortalite the band on the latter struck up a few bars of "See, the Conquering

HOW FOREIGN SHIPS MANEUVERED.

Hero Comes," swung into the swell of "Star-Spangled Banner" and then broke into the lively, inspiring "El Capitan." It was great. As the American ships left the ships in the Cavite anchorage the Immortalite and Iphigenia got under way, and, steaming swiftly across to the German and French ships, took up their stations directly between the German flagship and Admiral Dewey's ships. The German admiral as promptly got under way, and took a place in line with the Englishmen. It was only an incident, but the significance of the British move was tremendously apparent.

At 4,000 yards the order came to commence firing when ready, and at 9:35 o'clock the Olympia opened with a six-pounder, and almost simultaneously one of the forward eight-inch guns crashed and every glass was turned toward the target. The shots fell short, due to a mistake in the range, which was caused by a mirage effect, making the shore line appear closer. The order was then given to get the five-inch guns ready, and the range was made for 4,200 yards. Two five-inch guns from Ensign Taylor's battery blazed out, then one of the Stokely

Morgan's eight-inch forward guns and then another five-inch gun. Then came the order to cease firing.

Up to this time—9:50 o'clock—the Spaniards had not returned the fire, and it was suspected that they were reserving it for a closer range, or else, as appeared probable, the fort had been deserted. The Raleigh and Petrel had joined in, the Raleigh's magnificent battery of quick-firing five-inch guns and the Petrel's six-inch guns plowing holes in the landscape and altering the sky line of the fort.

At 9:50 o'clock the army, which was advancing toward the fort, began firing, and the smoke from their volleys hung in white clouds over their position. Five minutes later there was almost incessant firing from the army, and masses of white smoke were seen leaping out from the fort and the Spanish trenches in answer. At 3,500 yards the order was given again on the Olympia to commence firing, but before a gun was fired the order was given to cease firing. At 10 o'clock she opened again, but the shots fell short and to the right. The rain had now fallen into a steady drizzle, and the Admiral and Lieutenant Brumby had put on raincoats and the former changed his naval cap for a cloth traveling cap.

At 10 o'clock the Callao, very close in shore and moving along parallel with the army's advance, was raking the Spanish trenches with a deadly fire from the machine guns. Lieutenant Tappan was doing wonderful work with the little gunboat, and several Spanish volleys were fired on him as the vessel advanced. A number of bullets struck her, but no one was hurt, and she kept up with a steady grinding out from her Nordenfeldt and Hotchkiss. The little Barcelo, close behind, was pumping her machine guns in with magnificent effectiveness. Like the little Petrel in the battle of May 1, the Callao and Barcelo seemed to be in the thickest of the fight, and on account of their nearness to shore to be most aggressive and daring.

From the Olympia the movements of the land forces now became distinguishable. Where a few moments before their position was marked only by the smoke which rose above the trees from the batteries and volley firing, now it was plainly seen that a great number of soldiers were boldly advancing up the open beach and straggling forward in the heavy surf. It was a gallant sight to see the long line

of brown uniforms streaming up the beach, some waist deep in the surf and dashing out along the unprotected strip of sand which lay between

**GALLANTRY
APPLAUDED
BY SAILORS.**

them and the old fort, where the Spanish guns were expected to blaze out any minute in their faces. A scattering fire came from the Spanish trenches, and at 10:45 o'clock the troops on the beach stopped and answered with three volleys. When they crossed the little stream about 200 yards in front of the fort, holding their guns high in the air to keep them from being soaked, with the regimental flag and national ensign flying bravely at the fore, with their regimental band valiantly following and playing for dear life, there were thousands of eyes watching them from the ships with silent, almost breathless, anxiety. Slowly they drew nearer the fort, with the Mausers spattering along before them and the band playing. The Admiral said that it was the most gallant advance he had ever seen. The Colorado regimental band was playing "There'll Be a Hot Time in the Old Town To-night."

Just before the troops reached the powder magazine there was a tremendous explosion and a dense column of black smoke sprung up behind the fort. It was thought that a mine concealed in the road had been exploded. The smoke hung in the air and it was seen that the explosion was followed by a fire. The fort was now deep in smoke from other explosions and the Spanish firing.

As the troops advanced along the beach and approached nearer the fort the army signaled the fleet to cease firing. The fort was still silent.

At 10:58 a storm of cheers broke out from the Olympia, for the soldiers had passed the zone of fire and were clambering over the Spanish trenches and swarming into the fort. Hardly a moment passed before the yellow and red flag was seen to be coming down, and the next minute the American flag was raised in its place.

This was evidently the time agreed upon for the city to surrender, for an order was at once given by the Admiral to fly our international signal, "Do you surrender?" At 11 o'clock it was fluttering from the forward signal halyards of the flagship. With the hoisting of this signal came a general shifting of the positions of the fleet, and all the vessels, with the exception of the Callao, Concord and Barcelo, took

their positions before the heavy batteries of Manila. The Monterey steamed to a very close range and waited. Every gun in the fleet that could be trained in that direction was pointed on the Manila guns. If any one of those four 9.2-inch Hontoria guns had let loose at least a hundred shells would have been launched in on them in less time than it takes to read about it.

A huge Spanish flag was floating bravely over the city walls near one of the heavy batteries and it did not seem to come down with any particular haste. Nearly every one was watching that gorgeous piece of bunting and hoping that it would be hauled in, but in its persistent wavering there was certainly no indication of surrender or weakening.

The Zafiro, with General Merritt, approached the Olympia, and as if by a preconcerted agreement the flagship signaled that Flag Lieutenant Brumby would report on board the Zafiro. At 11:45 the Admiral left the bridge to meet Consul Andre, the Belgian representative, whose launch had just reached the flagship. Lieutenant Brumby took the largest American flag on the ship and went aboard the launch. General Whittier of General Merritt's staff came over from the Zafiro in a pulling boat, and also went aboard the launch Trueno. A few minutes later the launch steamed away toward Manila, 1,500 yards away.

WHEN
SURRENDER
WAS AT HAND.

At 12 o'clock the international signal "C. F. L.," meaning "hold conference," was hoisted over the city walls.

Then followed a long wait. Lunch was given the officers and men on the ships, the guns were kept trained on the Manila batteries, and the big Spanish flag still swung in the breezes above the beleaguered city.

Soon after 2 o'clock the Belgian consul's boat was seen to be returning. This seemed to mean that an agreement had not been reached, for the presence of the Spanish colors certainly did not look like capitulation.

At 2:23 o'clock Lieutenant Brumby, climbing up the sea ladder at the Olympia quarterdeck, called out to the Admiral: "Well, they've surrendered all right."

The Admiral quickly answered, "Why don't they haul down that flag?"

"They'll do that as soon as Merritt gets 600 or 700 men in there to protect them," explained Lieutenant Brumby.

The Admiral then said: "Well, you go over and tell General Merritt that I agree to anything."

As the news passed that the city had surrendered, the rigging was manned and tremendous cheers broke out over the dull sea. All the ships of the fleet were cheering as the news was signaled.

At 5:45 the Spanish flag in the city was seen slowly coming down, and a minute later the enormous American flag was hoisted in its place. Just as the huge flag went up, the sun, which through the greater hanging of the day had been obscured, now burst through the clouds hanging over Manila and illuminated the banner with a blaze of light. It was as opportune as the calcium light in the theater which falls on the center of the stage when the star enters.

The ships of the fleet saluted the new flag with twenty-one guns each. In ten minutes nearly 180 saluting charges were fired.

At 6 o'clock the band on the flagship struck up "The Victory of Manila," and the officers relaxed into a riot of speechmaking and gayety. Manila was ours, and peace could be declared at any minute.

By 10 o'clock 10,000 soldiers were in the city. The 2d Oregon patrolled the walled city and guarded its nine entrances. General Greene marched his brigade around the walled city into Binondo. The 1st California was sent east to the fashionable official residence district of Malacanay, the 1st Colorado was sent into Tondo and the 1st Nebraska was established on the north shore of the Pasig river. MacArthur's brigade patrolled Ermita and Malate.

**REJOICINGS OVER
THE CAPTURE
OF MANILA.**

In the walled city the Spaniards had surrendered their arms at the governor's palace. By nightfall over 7,000 rifles had been surrendered, and by the following evening nearly 1,000 more were turned in. The big American flag was hoisted by Lieutenant Brumby, and as the Oregonians entered from the Kwonghoi the afternoon of the fight their band struck up "The Star-Spangled Banner." The women wept as the

Spanish ensign went down, and the soldiers cheered as the American flag went up.

The night of the battle was quiet. Except for a few cases reported of the insurgents looting the houses of Spaniards, there was no disorder. The American soldiers at once began to fraternize with the Spanish soldiers. Terms of capitulation were agreed upon promptly between American and Spanish commanders and the occupation of the Spanish capital of the Philippines was complete. General Merritt's first great task after that of safely transporting an army across the Pacific was accomplished. His own report, ending as follows, is but a just appreciation of the excellence of the work done by his men. Its expressions of approval are no warmer than those given to General Merritt himself by those who know his work:

"Immediately after the surrender the Spanish colors on the sea front were hauled down and the American flag displayed and saluted by the guns of the navy. The 2d Oregon Regiment, which had proceeded by sea from Cavite, was disembarked and entered the walled town as a provost guard, and the colonel was directed to receive the Spanish arms and deposit them in places of security. The town was filled with the troops of the enemy driven in from the entrenchments, regiments formed and standing in line in the streets, but the work of disarming proceeded quietly and nothing unpleasant occurred.

**REPORT OF
GENERAL**

"In leaving the subject of the operations of the 13th I desire here to record my appreciation of the admirable manner in which the orders for attack and the plan for occupation of the city were carried out by the troops exactly as contemplated. I submit that for troops to enter under fire a town covering a wide area, to rapidly deploy and guard all principal points in the extensive suburbs, to keep out the insurgent forces pressing for admission, to quietly disarm an army of Spaniards more than equal in numbers to the American troops, and finally by all this to prevent entirely all rapine, pillage, and disorder, and gain entire and complete possession of a city of 300,000 people filled with natives hostile to the European interests, and stirred up by the knowledge that their own people were fighting in the outside trenches, was an act which only the law-abiding, temperate, resolute American soldier, well and skillfully handled by his regimental and brigade commanders, could accomplish."

WESLEY MERRITT.

CHAPTER VI.

COMPLICATIONS WITH THE INSURGENTS.

Filipinos Seeking Independence, Not New Ownership—Grave Problems to Be Faced by American Commanders in Manila—How Aguinaldo's Services Were Enlisted—Insurgent Government Organized—Aguinaldo's Relations with Dewey and Merritt—Organization of an American Government in Manila Under Army Officers—Proclamation of General Merritt—Filipino Commissioner Starts for Washington—The Treaty of Peace—Spaniards Surrender Iloilo to Filipinos—American Troops Refused a Landing—Friction Increases.

IN THEIR warfare against Spain, the insurgent Filipinos were seeking freedom and independence for themselves and their own land—not a mere shifting of subjection from one flag to another. They did not know the Americans, for American enterprise had scarcely been seen in the Philippines. They had not been even interested in Americans until the outbreak of war, so far away were they and so seldom was there any contact whatever. When the assault on Manila was threatened the Spanish authorities of the city issued a proclamation broadcast, asserting that a victory by the American fleet would mean disaster to property, public and private; that helpless men, women and children would fall victims to the violence of the sailors, who would be given free reign to ravage the city, and that the only safety for all was a united resistance. Ignorant of the true character of the Americans as they were, it is not strange that such information struck terror to the hearts of many people.

The result of these conditions was that the victories of Dewey and Merritt left by no means all of the problems of the Philippines solved.

PROBLEMS FACING DEWEY AND MERRITT.

They had to face a situation surpassingly difficult, for which they had no precedents, and solve the problems before them as best they could. The story of the organization of peace and order out of chaos under American rule in Manila is an interesting one. The complications

which followed there and in other parts of the archipelago were quite to be expected when all conditions were considered.

When Admiral Dewey arrived at Hongkong, Aguinaldo, leader of the insurrection against Spain, was in Singapore. As related in an earlier chapter, the war had been interrupted by the agreement of the Spanish government with Aguinaldo and the other insurgent leaders to pay them \$800,000 and introduce all the reforms for which the Filipinos had been asking. There is no doubt that the Spaniards thought they were taking a cheap means of stopping insurrection by bribing the leaders. But Aguinaldo and his associates chose to consider it a trust fund to be held, as a guarantee of Spanish good faith. Of the promised money, \$400,000 was paid into a bank in Hongkong. A lawsuit soon arose between Aguinaldo and one of his subordinate chiefs named Artacho, which is interesting on account of the very honorable position taken by Aguinaldo. Artacho sued for a division of the money among the insurgents according to rank. Aguinaldo claimed that the money was a trust fund and was to remain on deposit until it was seen whether the Spaniards would carry out their proposed reforms, and if they failed to do so it was to be used in defraying the expense of a new insurrection, as afterward actually was the case. The suit was settled out of court by paying Artacho \$5,000.

**AGUINALDO'S
HIGH SENSE
OF PATRIOTISM.**

On the 24th day of April, Aguinaldo met the United States consul and others at Singapore and offered to begin a new insurrection in conjunction with the operations of the United States navy at Manila. This was telegraphed to Admiral Dewey and, by his consent, or, at his request, Aguinaldo left Singapore for Hongkong on April 26, and, when the McCulloch went to Hongkong early in May to carry the news of Admiral Dewey's victory, it took Aguinaldo and seventeen other revolutionary chiefs on board and brought them to Manila bay. They soon after landed at Cavite, and the Admiral allowed them to take such guns, ammunition and stores as he did not require for himself. With these and some other arms which he had brought from Hongkong, Aguinaldo armed his followers, who rapidly assembled at Cavite and, in a few weeks, he began moving against the Spaniards. Part of them surrendered, giving him more arms, and the others retreated to Manila.

Soon afterwards two ships, which were the private property of Senor Agoncillo and other insurgent sympathizers, were converted into cruisers and sent with insurgent troops to Subig bay and other places, to capture provinces outside of Manila. They were very successful, the native militia in Spanish service capitulating with their arms in nearly every case without serious resistance. On the 18th of June Aguinaldo issued a proclamation from Cavite establishing a dictatorial government with himself as dictator. In each village or pueblo a chief was to be elected, and in each ward a *nendrum*; also in each pueblo three delegates, one of police, one of justice, and one of taxes. These were to constitute the junta, or assembly, and after consulting the junta the

**FORMS OF
THE FILIPINO
GOVERNMENT.**

chiefs of pueblos were to elect a chief of province and three counsellors, one of police, one of justice, and one of taxes. They were also to elect one or more representatives from each province to form the revolutionary congress. This was followed on June 20 by a decree giving more detailed instructions in regard to the elections. On June 23 another decree followed, changing the title of the government from dictatorial to revolutionary, and of the chief officer from dictator to president; announcing a cabinet with a minister of foreign affairs, marine and commerce, another of war and public works, another of police and internal order, justice, instruction and hygiene, and another of taxes, agriculture and manufactures; the powers of the president and congress were defined, and a code of military justice was formulated. On the same date a manifesto was issued to the world explaining the reasons and purposes of the revolution. On June 27 another decree was issued containing instructions in regard to elections. On August 6 an address was issued to foreign governments, stating that the revolutionary government was in operation and control in fifteen provinces, and that in response to the petition of the duly elected chiefs of these provinces, recognition of belligerency and independence was requested.

In this address it was announced that the revolutionary government ruled in fifteen provinces and had the city of Manila besieged. Order and tranquillity reigned. Nine thousand prisoners of war were held by the insurgents, and an army of 30,000 was declared to be under arms.

In the province of Cavite and that portion of the province of Manila outside of the city and of its suburbs, which was occupied by the insurgent troops as well as those of the United States, their military forces, military headquarters, etc., were very much in evidence, occupying the principal houses and churches in every village and hamlet, but there were no signs of civil government or administration. It was reported, however, that Aguinaldo's agents were levying taxes or forced contributions not only in the outside villages, but (after the Americans entered Manila) by means of secret agents, in the market place of the city itself. At Aguinaldo's headquarters, in Bakor, there were signs of activity and business, and his cabinet officers were in constant session there.

Aguinaldo never himself failed to claim all the prerogatives due to his alleged position as the *de facto* ruler of the country. The only general officer who saw him or had any direct communication with him was General Anderson. He did much to thwart this officer in organizing a native wagon train and otherwise providing for his troops, and he went so far, in a letter of July 23, as to warn General Anderson not to land American troops on Philippine soil without his consent—a notice which, it is hardly necessary to say, was ignored. The day before the attack on Manila he sent staff officers to the same general, asking for the American plans of attack, so that their troops could enter Manila with them.

AGUINALDO
AND THE
AMERICAN ARMY.

Aguinaldo did not call upon General Merritt on his arrival, and this enabled the latter to avoid any communication with him, either direct or indirect, until after Manila had been taken. General Merritt then received one of Aguinaldo's staff officers in his office as military governor. The interview lasted more than an hour. General Merritt referred to his proclamation as showing the conditions under which the American troops had come to Manila and the nature of the military government, which would be maintained until further orders from Washington. He agreed upon the lines outside of the city of Manila, up to which the insurgent troops could come, but no further, with arms in their hands. He asked for possession of the water works, which was given, and, while expressing our friendship and sympathy for the Philip-

pine people, he stated very positively that the United States government had placed at his disposal an ample force for carrying out his instructions, and even if the services of Aguinaldo's forces had been needed as allies he should not have felt at liberty to accept them.

From the first it was seen that the problem of how to deal with Aguinaldo's government and troops would necessarily be accompanied with embarrassment and difficulty, and would require much tact and skill in its solution. The United States government, through its naval commander, had to some extent made use of them for a distinct military purpose, to harass and annoy the Spanish troops, to wear them out in the trenches, to blockade Manila on the land side, and to do as much damage as possible to the Spanish government prior to the arrival of our troops, and for this purpose the Admiral allowed them to take the arms and munitions which he had captured at Cavite, and their ships to pass in and out of Manila bay in their expeditions against other provinces. But the Admiral was very careful to give Aguinaldo no assurances of recognition and no pledges or promises of any description. The services which Aguinaldo and his adherents rendered in preparing the way for attack on Manila are certainly entitled to consideration, but, after all, they were small in comparison with what was done by our fleet and army.

An American Government in Manila.

Our army entered Manila on the afternoon of August 13. On the 14th the capitulation was signed, and the same day General Merritt issued his proclamation establishing a military government. On the 15th General MacArthur was appointed military commander of the walled city and provost-marshal-general of the city of Manila and its suburbs, and on the 17th General Greene was appointed to take charge of the duties performed by the minister of finance, and all fiscal affairs. Representatives of the postoffice department had arrived on the steamship *China* in July and they immediately took charge of the Manila postoffice, which was opened for business on the 16th. The custom house was opened on the 18th, with Lieutenant-Colonel Whittier as collector, and the internal revenue office, with Major Bement as collector on the 22d. Captain Glass of the navy was appointed captain of the

port, or naval officer, and took charge of the office on August 19th. The collections of customs during the first ten days exceeded \$100,000. The collection of internal revenue was small owing to the difficulty and delay in ascertaining what persons had or had not paid their taxes for the current year. The administration of water works was put in charge of Lieutenant Connor, of the engineers, on August 25; the provost court with Lieutenant-Colonel Jewett, judge advocate United States volunteers, sitting as judge, was appointed and held its first session on August 23.

The provost-marshal-general had charge of the police, fire, health and street cleaning departments, and the issuing of licenses. The guardia civil, or gendarmerie of the city, proving indifferent and inefficient, they were disarmed and disbanded; the 13th Minnesota regiment was detailed for police duty, and one or more companies stationed in each police station, from which patrolmen were sent out on the streets to take the place of the sentries who had constantly patrolled them from the hour of entering the city.

The shops were all closed on Saturday afternoon, the 13th; on Monday some of them opened, and by Wednesday the banks had resumed business, the newspapers were published, and the merchants were ready to declare goods at the custom house; the tram cars were running and the retail shops were all open and doing a large business. There was no disorder or pillage of any kind in the city. The conduct of the troops was simply admirable, and left no ground for criticism. It was noted and commented upon by the foreign naval officers in the most favorable terms, and it so surprised the Spanish soldiers that a considerable number of them applied for permission to enlist in the American service.

**PROMPT RETURN
TO PEACE-
FUL ROUTINE.**

A total of about \$900,000 of public funds belonging to the various government departments was taken in charge by General Greene to be applied properly in public service.

On the day after the battle of Manila, and consequently on August 14, General Merritt issued the following proclamation to the Filipinos:

"Headquarters Department of the Pacific, August 14, 1898.

"To the People of the Philippines:

"I. War has existed between the United States and Spain since April 21 of this year. Since that date you have witnessed the destruction by an American fleet of the Spanish naval power in these islands, the fall of the principal city, Manila, and its defenses, and the surrender of the Spanish army of occupation to the forces of the United States.

"II. The commander of the United States forces now in possession has instructions from his government to assure the people that he has not come to wage war upon them, nor upon any part or faction among them, but to protect them in their homes, in their employments, and in their personal and religious rights. All persons who, by active aid or honest submission, co-operate with the United States in its efforts to give effect to this beneficent purpose, will receive the reward of its support and protection.

"III. The government established among you by the United States is a government of military occupation; and for the present it is ordered that the municipal laws such as affect private rights of persons and property, regulate local institutions, and provide for the punishment of crime, shall be considered as continuing in force, so far as compatible with the purposes of military government, and that they be administered through the ordinary tribunals substantially as before occupation, but by officials appointed by the government of occupation.

"IV. A provost-marshal-general will be appointed for the city of Manila and its outlying districts. This territory will be divided into sub-districts, and there will be assigned to each a deputy-provost-marshal.

The duties of the provost-marshal-general and his deputies will be set forth in detail in future orders. In a general way they are charged with the duty of making arrests of military, as well as civil offenders, sending such of the former class as are triable by courts-martial to their proper commands, with statements of their offenses and names of witnesses, and detaining in custody all other offenders for trial by military commission, provost courts, or native criminal courts, in accordance with law and the instructions hereafter to be issued.

**GENERAL MER-
RITT'S FIRST
PROCLAMATION.**

"V. The port of Manila, and all other ports and places in the Philippines which may be in the actual possession of our land and naval forces, will be open, while our military occupation may continue, to the commerce of all neutral nations as well as our own, in articles not contraband of war, and upon payment of the prescribed rates of duty which may be in force at the time of the importation.

"VI. All churches and places devoted to religious worship and to the arts and sciences, all educational institutions, libraries, scientific

collections, and museums are, so far as possible, to be protected; and all destruction or intentional defacement of such places or property, of historical monuments, archives, or works of science and art, is prohibited, save when required by urgent military necessity. Severe punishment will be meted out for all violations of this regulation.

"The custodians of all property of the character mentioned in this section will make prompt returns thereof to these headquarters, stating character and location, and embodying such recommendations as they may think proper for the full protection of the properties under their care and custody, that proper orders may issue enjoining the co-operation of both military and civil authorities in securing such protection.

"VI. The commanding general, in announcing the establishment of military government, and in entering upon his duty as military governor in pursuance of his appointment as such by the government of the United States, desires to assure the people that so long as they preserve the peace and perform their duties toward the representatives of the United States they will not be disturbed in their persons and property, except in so far as may be found necessary for the good of the service of the United States and the benefit of the people of the Philippines.

"WESLEY MERRITT,
"Major-General, United States Army, Commanding."

Looking forward to the securing of the best conditions possible for his country, Aguinaldo lost no time in sending a commissioner to Washington to represent the Filipinos. Senor Felipe Agoncillo was assigned to this important mission, and he journeyed to San Francisco by the same steamer which carried General Greene. General Merritt at the same time started for Paris to be present at the meeting of the treaty commissioners there.

From the time of the arrival of land forces, Aguinaldo had been exercised as to what share in the battle of Manila would be allowed the insurgents. He was reluctant to be put aside, and resented the request that he evacuate his trenches and permit American soldiers to take position there. After that time, when he and his government were refused any part in the direction of affairs in Manila and his army was turned back when endeavoring to enter the city with the victorious Americans, he became more restless under the restraint and complications began to arise.

**AGUINALDO
BECOMES
RESTLESS.**

One of the most important moves in the effort to obtain an adjust-

ment of relationships by the Filipinos was the issue by their junta in Hongkong of an appeal to the Americans. It recited their complaints, some of the allegations, however, being overdrawn, and begged for redress. This appeal, issued November 15, was as follows:

"We, the Hongkong representatives of our countrymen, appeal to the great and good judgment of President McKinley and the spirit of fairness and justice of the American people as always shown in their regard for the petitions of the weak and oppressed.

"While the fate of the islands is still undecided, and we are doing all in our power to prevent a conflict between the Americans and Filipinos—waiting patiently for the conclusion of the Paris conference—we implore the intervention of the President, supported by the will of the people, to end the slights shown our leaders, officials, soldiers and people by some of the American military and naval authorities and soldiers.

"We do not wish to do Admiral Dewey or General Otis wrong, but we presume that reports, under press censorship, will be, as they have been, sent broadcast, alleging that all the mistakes are ours and that the Americans are treating us most kindly. But we must tell the truth for the best interests of both parties, depending upon the American President and people to see that justice is done to our leaders, Aguinaldo especially, having full confidence in ultimately receiving justice from America.

"What have we done that we should experience unfriendly treatment? Are the Americans our friends? The tension becomes greater daily, and any moment a shot may be fired by an irresponsible American or Filipino soldier. And the flame thus started can only be quenched with blood dear to us both.

"We beseech the American President and people to help us to control our own people by directing the officials at Manila to temper their actions with friendship, justice and fairness.

"We suggest that Admiral Dewey and General Otis and General Merritt, in Paris, be asked:

**PERTINENT
QUESTIONS
TO BE ASKED.**

"If, from the commencement of hostilities to the present time, have not Aguinaldo and the Filipinos under him acceded in every request of the American officials?



HOW THE FIELDS OF THE PHILIPPINES ARE PLOWED

The Filipinos have a surprise awaiting them in the introduction of American agricultural implements. In this picture the motive power is no more primitive than the plow.



HAULING BRIDGE TIMBERS IN LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The rough carts employed for freighting in the Philippines and the peculiar draft-cattle used for drawing them, can bear heavier loads than one might believe without knowledge.



A PUBLIC READER IN THE CITY OF MANILA

In the Philippine Islands it is the practice for public readers to take their station in a favorable place and read the papers and books of the day to such as wish to patronize their industry. In the cigar factories, as in those of Cuba and Puerto Rico, readers are employed for the entertainment of the cigarmakers while the latter are at work.

"When Manila was captured, although the Filipinos had driven the Spaniards into Manila, completely investing the city and occupying some of the roads commanding in part the approaches to Manila, in advance of the Americans, were Filipinos not entirely ignored and even not notified of the intention to attack, or of the time or part they were expected to play, even if such was to stand aside?

"When the Filipinos, seeing the intention to attack, went to the assistance of the Americans, were they not stopped by an armed body and faced about, instead of being informed by friendly, peaceful request that they were not wanted? This unexpected action would have placed the Americans between two fires, Spanish and Filipino, if shots had been exchanged in the excitement of the moment had not then the Filipinos restrained themselves and obeyed the Americans, although deprived of the fruits of victory and participation in the final triumph after fighting all the way to the very walls and bearing the brunt of three months' campaign.

"After remaining a month on the outskirts of the city, where we had been stopped, quietly, as a garrison, we were ordered away. Did not we cheerfully obey, although having no assurances that the Americans would not give back the Manila posts, vacated, to the Spanish? When located for several months still farther out, we were ordered even beyond the suburbs of the city, where no quarters or shelter existed for troops and where supplies were difficult to obtain, did not we obey?

"Can the cruel allegations that we would murder, loot, steal and commit incendiarism if given a free hand be supported, when we conducted a campaign throughout Luzon, capturing all the important points outside of Manila and taking and treating humanely a thousand Spanish prisoners without being guilty of such acts, beyond what accompanies any military campaign, as the work of irresponsible camp-followers?

**FILIPINOS
MODERATE
IN WARFARE.**

"We beg that the American officials be asked also if all the Americans visiting the Filipinos' headquarters at Malolos, traveling in the interior, visiting the camps and lines or seeking favors of our officials, were not uniformly politely treated?

"In a friendly manner we invite the consideration of other points. Groundless and harmful rumors are being constantly circulated by Spanish sympathizers and malcontents, which are often believed without investigation. Our protests are not heard.

"All our launches were seized because of foolish rumors that we would attack the Americans. We asked for an explanation in seeking their recovery, and were not even given an answer.

"Our enemies were delighted, thus encouraging further rumors.

"Should not some logical reason, other than mere report, be given for suddenly seizing our property in Manila?

"The Spaniards, the late enemies of the Americans, are shown every consideration, and the Filipinos, friends and allies, are often treated as enemies. Does this satisfy American ideas of justice? The Filipino people cannot understand it, although their leaders tell them not to protest and that all will end well.

"We are asked by the Americans to restrain our people and avoid any outbreak pending the decision of the peace commission. This we gladly do. But we beg that similar instructions be given to the Americans by the Washington government.

"From the beginning of our relations, when Aguinaldo was urged in Singapore and Hongkong to return to Cavite and assist the Americans, until Manila fell, we acted under the advice and with the knowledge of the American officials. During that time we conquered all of Luzon outside of Manila and were informally recognized and encouraged by the Americans. When Manila was captured their chief end was attained, we were no longer recognized and were even treated as untrustworthy. Is this just?

"We can only attribute this sudden change from friendly encouragement and co-operation to an order from Washington to the officials at Manila to avoid compromising the American government by any recognition of the Filipinos or their government. They have endeavored to carry out these instructions literally, believing it the proper course to ignore the Filipinos entirely, losing sight of their former friendly intercourse and assistance and of the assurances the American officials made to our leader Aguinaldo, who in turn communicated the same to his followers.

"In concluding our humble but earnest appeal to the President and the people of the great American Republic we wish to emphasize our absolute confidence in him and them to make it plain that our protests are not prompted by any feeling of animosity, but are directed against the conditions existing at Manila, and not against the American government or people, to acknowledge our gratitude to the American arms for destroying Spanish power in the Philippines and permitting the return of Aguinaldo, and to express the hope that America will stand by her determination not to return the islands to Spain.

FRANK GRATITUDE
TO THE
AMERICANS.

"We await the arbitrament of the peace commission, for whose good judgment we have profound respect, with even greater interest than the Americans, because it concerns our native land, our happiness, our freedom and our homes.

"In the meantime we pray for peace and a perfect understanding with the Americans."

By this time General Merritt was in London on his way to the United States and he read with a great deal of interest the long letter of complaint against American officials in the Philippine islands addressed by the Filipino junta of Hongkong to President McKinley and the people. In discussing the Filipinos, the American general referred to them as "children," and said it would be impossible to establish American government in the islands. He added that they must have some form of colonial government similar to the British colonial governments.

Regarding the complaints of the Filipinos the general said:

"It was impossible to recognize the insurgents, and I made it a point not to do so, as I knew it would lead to complications. Admiral Dewey after my arrival pursued the same course. What was done before is not for me to comment on. I purposely did not recognize Aguinaldo or his troops, nor did I use them in any way. Aguinaldo did not ask to see me until ten days after my arrival. After that I was too much occupied to see him.

"In talking with leading Filipinos I told them the United States had no promises to make, but that they might be assured that the government and people of the United States would treat them fairly.

This was because the United States is in the habit of dealing fairly with all struggling peoples, and not because I had been authorized to say anything of the kind.

"We purposely did not give the insurgents notice of our attack on Manila because we did not need their co-operation and did not purpose to have it. We were moved by fear that they might loot and plunder and possibly murder. Aguinaldo's subordinate leaders, in conversing with American officers, frequently said they intended to cut the throats of all the Spaniards in Manila.

"Aguinaldo himself wrote a complaining letter saying the insurgents had been denied 'their share of the booty,' whatever he may have meant by that. I took no notice of this letter nor do I think the subject now raised is a matter for discussion between Aguinaldo and any representative of the American government."

General Otis, then the commander of the American forces in the Philippines, proposed to Aguinaldo that he release the friars and civilians held in captivity throughout the provinces. The insurgent leader denied their maltreatment and refused to release the prisoners, claiming that the civilians had enlisted as volunteers and therefore were legitimate prisoners of war. Aguinaldo also denied that women and children were detained, but said some women and children had voluntarily accompanied their husbands or fathers into captivity.

As to the friars, Aguinaldo argued that they are prohibited by the pope from accepting parochial appointments; that they are only permitted to follow monastic life, and that the parishes are intrusted to ministers of the independent monastic orders. But, he added, the Philippine clericals have deliberately and systematically deceived the pope, pretending that the country was barbarous, unfit for the regular ministry and that it was necessary that the monastic orders should administer the parishes. Therefore, Aguinaldo continued, he considered it necessary to detain the friars until the pope is undeceived.

Newspapers in the Philippines began to publish inflammatory and aggressive articles regarding the Americans.

The most threatening complications of all were centered about

**FRIARS RETAINED
AS FILIPINO
PRISONERS.**

Iloilo, the second city of the islands, on the island of Panay, 355 miles south of Manila. This is one of the group known as the Visayas islands. Iloilo was besieged by the insurgents and so closely encircled that the Spanish garrison which was stationed there finally was unable to hold out any longer. Several thousand soldiers were surrendered to the native forces, with large quantities of arms and ammunition, on the 24th of December.

Three days later an American expedition, which had been hurried southward from Manila under the command of General Marcus P. Miller, arrived at Iloilo, and found that the Spaniards had evacuated the place. The steamer Churruca transferred the Spanish forces to Mindanao. In accordance with an agreement the rebels entered the city and trenches on Monday at noon. They immediately established a municipal government. Guards were placed over foreign property. Everything was quiet and orderly. There was some looting during the night, but five natives were shot, and this had an exemplary effect. The only foreign ship in the harbor was the German cruiser Irene. The Filipinos assured the Americans that they might land unarmed, but that if the latter landed armed the natives would be uncontrollable. Every preparation was made for resistance upon the part of the rebels, and re-enforcements were arriving from Negros and the neighboring islands.

**FILIPINOS
CAPTURE CITY
OF ILOILO.**

To define the position of the American authorities in the Philippines, President McKinley issued a letter to the secretary of war, with instructions that it be transmitted to General Otis and by him embodied in a public proclamation to the Filipinos. The letter was as follows:

"Executive Mansion, Washington, D. C., December 21, 1898.—To the Secretary of War. Sir: The destruction of the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Manila by the United States naval squadron commanded by Rear-Admiral Dewey, followed by the reduction of the city and the surrender of the Spanish forces, practically effected the conquest of the Philippine islands and the suspension of Spanish sovereignty therein.

"With the signature of the treaty of peace between the United States and Spain by their respective plenipotentiaries at Paris on the 10th inst., and as the result of the victories of American arms, the future control, disposition and government of the Philippine islands

are ceded to the United States. In fulfillment of the rights of sovereignty thus acquired and the responsible obligations of government thus assumed, the actual occupation and administration of the entire group of the Philippine islands becomes immediately necessary, and the military government heretofore maintained by the United States in the city, harbor and bay of Manila is to be extended with all possible dispatch to the whole of the ceded territory.

"In performing this duty the military commander of the United States is enjoined to make known to the inhabitants of the Philippine islands that, in succeeding to the sovereignty of Spain, in severing the former political relations of the inhabitants and in establishing a new political power, the authority of the United States is to be exerted for the sovereignty of the persons and property of the people of the islands and for the confirmation of all their private rights and relations.

"It will be the duty of the commander of the forces of occupation to announce and proclaim in the most public manner that we come not as invaders or conquerors, but as friends, to protect the natives in their homes, in their employments and in their personal and religious rights. All persons who, either by active aid or honest submission, co-operate with the government of the United States, to give effect to these benefits and purposes, will receive the reward of its support and protection. All others will be brought within the lawful rule we have assumed with firmness, if need be, but without severity so far as may be possible.

"Within the absolute domain of military authority, which necessarily is and must remain supreme in the ceded territory until the legislation of the United States shall otherwise provide, the municipal laws of the territory in respect to private rights and property and the repression of crime are to be considered as continuing in force and to be administered by the ordinary tribunals so far as possible. The operations of civil and municipal government are to be performed by such officers as may accept the supremacy of the United States by taking the oath of allegiance, or by officers chosen as far as may be practicable from the inhabitants of the islands.

"While the control of all the public property and the revenues of the state passes with the cession and while the use and management of all public means of transportation are necessarily reserved to the authority of the United States, private property, whether belonging to individuals or corporations, is to be respected except for cause fully established. The taxes and duties heretofore payable by the inhabitants to the late government become payable to the authorities of the United States unless it be seen fit to substitute for them other reasonable rates or modes of contribution to the expenses of government, whether general or local. If private property be taken for military use it shall be paid for when possible in cash at a fair valuation and

PRES'T. MCKINLEY
WRITES
A LETTER.

when payment in cash is not practicable receipts are to be given.

"All ports and places in the Philippine islands in the actual possession of the land and naval forces of the United States will be opened to the commerce of all friendly nations. All goods and wares, not prohibited for military reasons by due announcement of the military authority, will be admitted upon payment of such duties and other charges as shall be in force at the time of their importation.

"Finally, it should be the earnest and paramount aim of the military administration to win the confidence, respect and affection of the inhabitants of the Philippines by assuring to them in every possible way that full measure of individual rights and liberty which is the heritage of free people and by proving to them that the mission of the United States is one of benevolent assimilation, substituting the mild sway of justice and right for arbitrary rule. In the fulfillment of this high mission, supporting the temperate administration of affairs for the greatest good of the governed, there must be sedulously maintained the strong arm of authority, to repress disturbance and to overcome all obstacles to the bestowal of the blessings of good and stable government upon the people of the Philippine islands under the free flag of the United States.

WILLIAM M'KINLEY."

Commenting upon President McKinley's proclamation to the Filipinos issued by General Otis, the *Independencia*, a native paper, declared the problem presented most grave. It admitted that there were only two solutions possible—namely, the American abandonment of their annexation policy, claiming that the people here are not desirous of absorption in their nationality, or a prolonged and bloody war. It cited the example of the "noble patriots of Iloilo defying General Miller," expressed hope for a pacific termination of the crisis, but hinted of trouble.

Within a few hours of the proclamation issued by Major-General Otis in behalf of President McKinley the agents of Aguinaldo billed Manila with a manifesto which attracted considerable attention. The revolutionary president protested against General Otis signing himself military governor of the Philippine islands. He declared he had never agreed at Singapore, Hongkong or elsewhere to recognize the sovereignty of the Americans here and insists that he returned to the Philippines on an American ship solely to conquer the Spaniards and to win independence. He insisted that both his proclamations of May 24 and June 12 stated this fact officially, and he claimed that Major-General

AGUINALDO
ISSUES
A REPLY.

Merritt confirmed this by a proclamation several days before the Spaniards capitulated, stating clearly and definitely that the American forces came to overthrow the Spanish government and liberate the Filipinos.

The revolutionary leader then called upon all his followers to work together with force and assured them he was convinced that they would obtain absolute independence, urging them never to return "from the glorious road" on which they have "already so far advanced."

While military affairs were in this strained condition, a new Filipino cabinet was formed, composed as follows:

President of the cabinet and minister of foreign affairs, Mabini.

Minister of the interior, Teodoro Sandico, a civil engineer, educated in England and Belgium and taken to Manila from Hongkong by Rear-Admiral Dewey.

Minister of war, Gen. Baldomero Aguinaldo, a cousin of Aguinaldo and a leader of the insurrection from the beginning. He is a large land-owner of Cavite.

Minister of finance, General Trias, a close ally of Aguinaldo.

Minister of public works, Gregorico Gonzaga, a lawyer, until recently the Filipino agent at Hongkong and formerly Spanish attorney-general in the Visayas.

The cabinet was homogeneous, every member being pledged to resist the American military occupation of the Philippines.

Mabini claimed recognition of the independence of the Philippine islands and would not consent to the release of the Spanish prisoners, but was willing to come to an understanding with the Americans, "as allies," for the surrender of the Spanish military and civil officers and others on the following conditions:

"The negotiations to be opened formally between Spain and the national Filipino government, Spain nominating a delegate to treat therewith.

"Exchange of prisoners and Spain to repatriate, firstly, all the Filipinos held prisoners; secondly, all prisoners of war condemned as traitors, revoltors or deserters, and Spain to grant amnesty to all Filipinos and Spaniards accused of conspiracy in the insurrection.

"Spain to defray all the expenses of repatriating the Filipinos and also the cost of maintaining and repatriating the Spanish prisoners held by the Filipinos.



A NATIVE CAB IN MANILA

Transportation of the poor, after the fashion we know at home, by means of cab-horses, is common enough, but in addition to that, a large number of cabs, such as here shown, are employed and find patronage. The vehicle carries a whole brood of the primitive sort.



RURAL SCENE IN LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This picture has a very different appearance from what one would find in a farming country in the United States, and yet there are similarities. At the left the farmer leans against his wagon. A woman is carrying her child across the little foot-bridge that spans the ditch. But she stands in the shade of banana leaves which sway over her head, the fence is made of bamboo, and every detail of the landscape is strange.



ROADSIDE SHOP, INTERIOR OF LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

One of the more picturesque features of life in the islands is the peculiar little roadside market place where the peasants buy the few things needed for them. Open to the air except for a rear wall and roof of light matting, their small stocks of goods are displayed in the crudest fashion to the curious passer-by.



CIGAR FACTORY IN MANILA

This scene in one of the greater manufactories of cigars in the Philippine Islands shows the manner of work done by women. The windows made of transparent shell are a novelty, as well as the shine, which is a characteristic of every such factory in a Spanish country.

"Friars taken prisoners will not be included in the exchange, seeing that they acted as papal agents during the war; but their surrender would be made on the condition, firstly, that the apostolic delegate will ask their liberty in the name of the pope; secondly, that all bulls and pontifical decrees granting special privileges to the religious orders be revoked; thirdly, that all rites of the secular clergy be respected; fourthly, that no friar hold any parish, cathedral, episcopate or diocesan preferments; fifthly, that all such preferments be held by native or naturalized Filipino clergy, and, sixthly, that rules for the election of bishops be fixed."

**CONDITIONS
OF ALLIANCE
OFFERED.**

Conditions around Iloilo became more critical. The streets were barricaded and many buildings prepared for defense in the event of attack. The insurgents threatened to destroy the whole business quarter of the city at the first shot of bombardment by the Americans. The banks sent their funds aboard ships in the harbor. President McKinley's proclamation had to be typewritten aboard ship, as the printers on shore declined to do the work, and when the text of the proclamation was read to them they ridiculed the notion that conciliation was possible.

Senor Agoncillo, the Filipino representative in Washington, had made repeated efforts to obtain diplomatic recognition from the President and the secretary of state, always without success. They had received him personally and had listened to his presentation of affairs, but had given him no official recognition whatever. In his communication of January 24 to the secretary of state, Senor Don Felipe Agoncillo called attention to the fact that on January 11 he addressed a letter to him upon the question of recognition, forwarding with it a memorandum demonstrating that according to all American precedents the Philippine republic was entitled to recognition, and in the same letter invited the attention of the secretary to the present strained conditions at Manila, where overzeal on either side might create a condition resulting in grievous loss of life and urging the necessity of an early and frank communication between the representatives of the two countries. He further called attention to the fact that since his letter was written the very circumstances he feared have brought the two countries to the edge of war.

**SEEKING RECOGNITION IN
WASHINGTON.**

Referring to the continual movement of ships and troops to the Philippines, Agoncillo says he is unable to conceive of any reason why the army and navy of the United States, lately employed against a common enemy, should be turned against America's recent associate.

The United States, he says, has no active enemy in the orient, having proclaimed an armistice with Spain. It is true, he continues, that Spain has undertaken to convey to the United States its alleged claim against the Philippines, a claim which Spain was not capable of enforcing and which never found its origin in the consent of the people of those islands. He inquires: "Are my government and people to be left to suppose that it is because of some desire on the part of the American government to enforce against its late associate this exploded claim that the United States is massing its forces at the late capital of the Philippine islands?"

He is sure the secretary of state will appreciate, in view of the circumstances detailed, the quieting, reassuring effect upon the minds of his countrymen to result from a disclaimer upon the part of the American government of any intention to attack their liberties and independence.

But by this time there were two delegations of Filipinos in Washington. One was that headed by Agoncillo, representing Aguinaldo and the insurgents; the other, wealthy merchants, also Filipinos, who were opposed to Aguinaldo and regarded him as an adventurer. President McKinley decided upon the appointment of a commission to visit the Philippine islands and confer with the leading people, both Spaniards and insurgents, concerning the organization of a government. He believed it would be taking great risks for Congress or himself or anybody to attempt to frame a government for the Filipinos without knowing thoroughly the sentiments and the requirements of the people and the conditions in which they are situated. Although he prob-

**VIEWS OF
PRESIDENT
McKINLEY.**

ably knew as much on this subject as any man who has not personally visited the archipelago, he did not feel competent to make any recommendations. He believed that we should go very slowly. He wanted also to formally assure the Filipinos of the friendly intentions of the United States. He wanted them to understand that the purpose of this

government is to give them as large a share of self-government as the circumstances will justify, and he would like to have the views of the people of importance, the intelligent classes, the property-owners and taxpayers as to the form of government most suitable.

This commission was composed of Admiral Dewey, General Otis, Colonel Charles Denby of Evansville, Ind., who was for thirteen years minister to China; President Schurmann of Cornell University and Professor Dean C. Worcester of Michigan University, Ann Arbor. The latter is the author of an exhaustive and valuable scientific work on the Philippine islands, drawn from information which he gained in scientific exploration and study in the archipelago through a period of nearly three years.

Native papers and insurgent leaders gave little credit to the appointment of the commission, claiming that it was but a ruse of the Americans to gain time and strengthen their position.

This was the state of affairs at the end of January, 1899, when American men-of-war and American soldiers were being sent as rapidly as practicable to add to the forces already in the far-away islands of the east.

CHAPTER VII.

AMERICAN REMINISCENCES OF MANILA.

Value of Personal Recollections and Impressions—Stories Told by Correspondents and Artists in the Philippines—Manila in the Early Days of the American Occupation—Americans, Insurgents and Spanish Soldiers and Officers—Friction Begins—Manila Enjoys a Boom—Songs of the Philippines—Soldiers Learning Spanish—First English Paper in Manila—Stories of Sailors and Soldiers.

CASUAL impressions and memories of life in strange countries are always of interest, for they are likely to touch upon the more ordinary and personal things which concern all people. The facts of science, politics and commerce are of highest importance, but they become more readable when mixed with tales of the lighter things of life.

Into the far-away islands of the east thousands of young Americans have journeyed within the last few months, selected from every walk of life, to do the duties of soldiers and sailors. To their friends and families they have written letters filled with anecdotes and impressions of the things they saw. Some have told of battles on land and sea, some of life in camp, some of peculiar habits and customs of the natives, but nearly all are alike interesting.

John T. McCutcheon, the artist-correspondent, accompanied Admiral Dewey from Hongkong to Manila, saw the battle of Manila bay from the deck of one of the American vessels, watched the progress of events till the army came, saw the capture of the city and then remained with army and navy to watch the end of Spanish rule in the

Philippines. He witnessed all the events and the life of that campaign from a most advantageous point of view. His stories of Manila in the days of change from Spanish to American rule are exceedingly

interesting. They are of special value because they outline the life of the city during the early days of American occupation, and

tell the same things that were seen by the soldiers and sailors themselves. It is quite worth while to quote a succession of Mr. McCutcheon's letters, graphically written by one who saw with the eye of an artist the salient and picturesque features of the events that passed before him. Some of the paragraphs will show by what they relate that they were written several months ago, but they are none the less interesting on that account and dates are not essential for the present purpose:

"Manila has been in a strange condition since the capitulation. Military rule of course prevails and the streets in all quarters are patrolled by big, rough-looking soldiers in brown.

"Down in the business district where the great Escolta runs, with its modern shops and its throngs of people, the scene is marvelously interesting. Shops which have been closed since the 1st of May have now hurriedly opened to gather in the floods of money being spent by the 12,000 new arrivals in the town, and the new arrivals are busy buying everything in sight. Soldiers march back and forth in the Escolta, Spanish soldiers and insurgents crowd along the narrow sidewalks, the carriages of the aristocracy are beginning to venture out and Spanish ladies who for weeks have sought security in the walled city are riding back and forth. American officers, German sailors, Filipinos, Chinese, Malays, Japanese and English sailors; officers from Admiral Dewey's fleet, Spanish officers neat and well groomed, hungry and emaciated Spanish privates, carriages and carromattas and coolies, all drifting along this great business artery of Manila, combine to form a kaleidoscopic picture which can hardly be equaled in its cosmopolitan character anywhere in the world.

**AMERICAN
SOLDIERS
ON DUTY.**

"The Spanish officers by virtue of the conditions of the surrender retain their sidearms, but the insurgents entering the city are compelled to leave all arms with the guards at the outposts, for the uncertain attitude of the latter makes it extremely problematical what they may be meditating. The Spaniards, particularly the officers and civil officials, are afraid as death of the insurgents, for they know well that there are many old scores to be settled and they fear assassination or assault unless under the immediate protection of the American troops. Conse-

quently the Spaniards do not venture far from the walled city or the crowded business districts in Binondo, just across the Pasig river. The cafes are always jammed and in the big Alhambra, which reaches from the avenue to the river, the scores of little tables are nearly always filled with the floating population of Manila.

"Among the soldiers and sailors there is a prevailing goodfellowship that reaches far over any political differences which may separate them. Spanish officers and American officers sit together drinking and smoking and talking. Big, rough, healthy-looking soldier boys from the States and thin, hungry-looking Spanish privates fraternize with such good feeling and spirit that it is hard to think that ten days ago, perhaps, each was crouching behind earthen breastworks 1,000 yards apart, the one with a Mauser, the other a Springfield, trying to pick each other off. German sailors and American soldiers are as brotherly as if weeks and weeks were not spent distrusting one another.

"Immediately after the army of occupation settled down in Manila hundreds of chuck-a-luck games sprung up on the sidewalks and in the little shops throughout the town. Every one of these was crowded

GAMBLING with natives, Chinese and American soldiers. They
BEGUN gave interest and excitement to the general life of the
AND SUPPRESSED. street, but General MacArthur started out on a wild career of reform a few days ago and they were all suppressed. Several dozen offenders were dragged before Colonel Jewett, the judge advocate, and given ten days' work on the streets.

"In spite of all the varied character of the people in the city, there is comparatively little disorder. The soldiers at first fell by the wayside in large numbers from the results of the native gin, but the scenes of good-natured intoxication that were so common at first are growing fewer. The first day the German ships granted shore liberty to the crews the streets were filled with reeling, dizzy Teuton tars, but the best of feeling and order prevailed. Several little clashes occurred between the insurgents and Spaniards, and one case of shooting has been reported. An insurgent officer, wearing his shoulder-straps, encountered a Spanish officer, who attempted to tear the straps off. A struggle resulted, in which the Spaniard shot the insurgent through the leg. The Spaniard was arrested.

"During these first few days of military occupation every effort has been made by the provost marshal, General MacArthur and his deputies, Colonel Smith and Colonel Ovenshine, properly to patrol and protect property, but the district to be guarded is so extensive that the cases of pillage that have happened could hardly have been prevented. The officers and soldiers have taken possession of all the public and official residences for headquarters and barracks. Many beautiful private residences, which have long been unoccupied because of their owners fleeing within the walled city, have been impressed, but in these cases a reasonable rental has been paid. General Merritt at once took possession of the governor-general's official palace or capitol building within the walled city as the headquarters of himself and staff. The country palace of the Spanish governor at Malacanan was first occupied by the officers of the 1st California regiment, but General Merritt later established his official residence there. The 1st California then transferred to the admiral's palace in the same fashionable suburbs, but General Greene and his staff, who were temporarily quartered at the Hotel de Oriente, moved out and supplanted the 1st Californians, who then moved into the palace of one of the secretaries, which adjoins the governor's palace. This is perhaps more desirable than either of the others, but the 1st was unfortunate, for General Merritt transferred the military command to General Otis, who took possession of the palace in the walled city, and General Merritt moved his offices and official headquarters out into the secretary's palace.

"General Anderson, between whom and General Merritt there has been a well-defined breach of many years' standing, is established over in Cavite with a handful of men. This is rather a humiliating detail for Anderson, and has caused a good deal of quiet talk in army circles. The Cavite detail was considered the least desirable of any of the posts and the least important, but subsequent events have advanced it to a place of considerable prominence, since the insurgents have come to be regarded as a doubtful factor.

"The relations between the Americans and insurgents are thought to be considerably strained and the situation is very delicate. Nothing can be determined by interviewing Aguinaldo, who is hard to see, and who says nothing when he talks. In the number of interviews which

I have had with him he has never said anything which had the slightest value. On one occasion he did give the distribution and strength of his different troops, but this information was so manifestly wrong that it was useless. In the respect of keeping his own affairs and the movements of his troops and his sentiments regarding the Americans strictly to himself, Aguinaldo is a conspicuous success.

AGUINALDO
A MAN
OF SILENCE.

"It is well known that the insurgents have been sullen for some time. General Merritt paid no attention to them when he came, and Aguinaldo in turn ignored the general. There has never been any co-operation between the two forces. The insurgents by carrying on a successful guerrilla warfare have accomplished great results. They have completely taken all the Spanish outlying positions, one by one, and captured several thousand half-hearted, unpaid, discouraged Spanish soldiers. Gradually Aguinaldo pressed the Spaniards up to the very limits of the city. He took the water-works and cut off the water supply. There is no denying that he accomplished a valuable service in his campaign against the Spaniards. He could not have done it, of course, had not the American fleet blockaded the port and cut off supplies and re-enforcements, but he got the Spaniards corralled and limited the fighting zone to a comparatively small area. With all these successes the insurgents got the impression that they were a grand army, and each week saw the self-esteem of the Filipinos grow greater and greater. Instead of wanting an American protectorate, they wanted absolute independence.

"When, a little later, a series of rumors began an industrious circulation to the effect that Germany was preparing to recognize the belligerency of the Philippine insurrectionists it was considered that a formidable breach was coming between the Americans and Filipinos. The next chapter relates to a spirited correspondence between General Anderson and General Aguinaldo, in which the latter said that the Filipinos were acting under the belief that the Americans were fighting the Spaniards in order to give the islands to the natives, just as Cuba was being freed for the Cubans. Anderson, who had previously in an outburst of friendliness, stated to Aguinaldo that America had been a great nation for 122 years and had never taken a colony, and that Aguinaldo



INTERIOR OF A CIGAR FACTORY, MANILA

Raising tobacco and making cigars are industries of the Philippines almost as important as in Cuba. Manila has scores of great cigar and cigarette factories, of which the accompanying illustration gives an excellent idea. The cigar makers are mostly Filipinos, though a few Spanish are employed. They dress for comfort rather than for public view, and the annual clothing bill is not a heavy one.



TYPICAL SCENE IN THE ISLAND OF LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This picturesque view is a fair representation of a peasant home in Luzon. The thatched cottage with its fence of irregular stakes, the coconut palms nearby, furnishing shade as well as their rich fruit, and the little lake in the background, surrounded by its grove of palms, all overshadowed by the outlying range of hills—these form a landscape repeated many times to the sight of the traveler who journeys into the interior of the island.

could infer from that what the American attitude would be, now said that the disposition of the islands depended on Washington. Immediately Aguinaldo suspected that the Americans were preparing to retain the Philippines and he at once made overtures to the Spanish governor-general to persuade the latter to surrender the city of Manila to the insurgents, thus forestalling the Americans. One of Aguinaldo's aids, Legardo, was intrusted with the mission of communicating with the governor-general, but when Legardo reached Manila he deserted to the Spaniards and negotiations practically ceased. Then Aguinaldo began a most aggressive campaign, looking to the capture of the city by his forces. He was unsuccessful, and doubtless never would have been successful, considering the strength of the Spanish positions.

"When the Americans entered the city the insurgents swarmed in after them, looting and pillaging. They established armed barracks on the Calle Real in Malate and extensive headquarters in the Calle Observatio. The chief work of the Americans began with the presence of the insurgents. The Americans and Spanish were practically allied to prevent the insurgents getting into the city. Then came an order prohibiting insurgents entering the city armed, and a force of about 300 were disarmed by the Americans. This aroused considerable feeling, and it was noticed that Aguinaldo, who still had possession of the water works, refused to let the water in the city. There then followed a long parley of negotiation, in which Aguinaldo demonstrated that his rights as governor-general were just about the same as those of General Merritt. The latter had the city, but the former had the country. It must have been rather humiliating for the American governor to find himself in a position where he could not direct affairs a half-mile beyond the city limits.

**AGUINALDO
AND THE
WATER WORKS.**

"In securing the water works, a number of Aguinaldo's demands had to be satisfied. He sent in several conditions which had to be fulfilled. Among them was that his troops should have control and surveillance of the water works, and as long as the Americans remained the water should be supplied through his indulgence, but as soon as the Americans left, if the islands were to be relinquished or given back to Spain, he wanted to be in a condition to renew the conflict against the

Spanish with the same advantages as he had before the Americans came into the city. For the same reason he demanded that the troops be allowed to retain their arms until it was definitely decided that the Spanish had forever and beyond doubt been banished from control of the Philippines. He also wanted a specified number of convents within the city to quarter his troops in, he wanted the Spanish police whom Merritt had retained relieved from duty, and he wanted definite lines established within which the Americans were to control and beyond which he was to control. He demanded that the officers be allowed to wear their sidearms when entering the city, that he himself be given the governor-general's summer palace at Malacanán, now occupied by General Merritt, and that all the products of Filipino labor be allowed to leave the islands free of duty.

"Some of these demands were preposterous, but some were reasonable and logical. He had a right to ask the retention of his arms as long as the ultimate position of the islands was in doubt, so that if the Spaniards ever regain control he will be prepared to renew his fight. The result of his other conditions is in doubt. It is merely known that outside Manila Aguinaldo's troops are supreme, and that in some quarters Americans are prohibited from going. He also has two strong barracks within the city limits, with big bodies of armed troops. Within a mile of General MacArthur's headquarters it is estimated that there are at least 4,000 armed Filipinos. He also retains control of the water works, but allows them to be operated. He has not been given a palace in the city, and it is not thought that his products will be exempt from duty. The Guardia Civil, which is the local constabulary, composed of men who have served at least eight years in the Spanish army and are past masters of every form of corruption and extortion which their long post-graduate course has taught and fitted them for, are relieved and Americans assigned to take their places. So the matter rests, and will probably remain this way until the disposition of the islands is determined."

Under the American military regime, Manila at night is very dull. After 10 o'clock the city is dead, and only the sentries are seen on the streets. There is no theater here, and it has been several months since the opera has been on. The soldiers are not allowed out of

quarters after 10 o'clock unless on duty; the saloons are closed and the night life of Manila is behind closed doors. It is almost impossible to imagine a great city of 300,000 being as quiet as Manila is at night. The Spaniards retire to their homes and the Americans to their barracks. The few foreign residents who spend their evenings at the clubs return home long before the small hours. Most people here go to bed early because nearly all the city's business is done in the forenoon, and people get up pretty early to do it. At noon all the stores are closed for two hours, and in the afternoon those who can do so seek refuge from the sun beneath the spreading balconies of their homes and do not appear in the Escolta unless it is necessary. And if it is necessary they put it off until to-morrow.

**CITY OF MANILA
IS DULL
AT NIGHT.**

The American soldiers are keeping up a regular routine of drilling. In the evening at about 6 o'clock the districts of the city and suburbs are enlivened by the sound of martial music, the shuffle of measured footsteps and the rattle of arms. Hundreds of natives and Spaniards usually gather to watch these daily drills, which are in a way exhibition drills, and they doubtless wonder at a military display which the Spanish predecessors evidently never indulged in. It does an American citizen good to see how superior in physique and how strong in healthful development the soldiers of his country are. They are usually so much taller than the Spanish and insurgent soldiers that there is no comparison. The uniforms worn by the Americans are somewhat ugly and unmilitary looking, but there is always such a suggestion of health and strength about them that the offense to esthetic ideas of beauty is not noticed. The blue shirts and rough brown breeches and slouch hats give them the appearance of stage cowboys or frontiersmen. Sometimes in the evening there are companies of soldiers drilling on the Lunetta, and at these times the sides of the parade ground are crowded. Over in the bandstand a couple of Oregon soldiers occasionally give exhibitions of boxing. The crowd that throngs around the arena during these displays of manly strength and cleverness of sparring are always big and very appreciative, although the people here usually marvel at anything that involves voluntary exertion.

Early in October Captain Linn of the commissary department was ordered home and left on the transport *Peru*. There are a number of circumstances connected with the case, leading to his departure, that are exciting a good deal of discussion here.

The story, briefly, is this:

When the city was taken it became necessary to invoice all public property. This included church property. Colonel Brainerd, acting under General Otis' authority, detailed Captain Linn to visit the ecclesiastical institutions and make a list of all the valuable articles used in the churches. This he started to do, but in one church he was denied entrance to a certain room by the priests. He explained as delicately as possible that he would have to be admitted in order to follow out his instructions. The fact that several articles of silver belonging to the church service were missing convinced him that they were being

**COMPLICATIONS
IN A SPANISH
CHURCH.**

concealed, or else were within the room to which admission was denied. The priests still refused to open the door, saying that it would be sacrilegious for him to enter. They suggested that he go to another door leading from the street, and in that way gain admission to the rest of the building, but in doing this he would have to skip the particular room he wished to enter. Captain Linn then sent for instructions from Colonel Brainerd, who sent a corporal's guard. On their arrival the priests opened the door. Several pieces of silver were found and inventoried, and Captain Linn then went on to the next church. He was treated with courtesy. In some of the convents he would examine two or three of the rooms of the sisters, note the contents, and accept the statement of the mother superior that the rest of the rooms were similarly furnished.

In a very short time a flood of protests came in upon General Otis regarding Captain Linn's behavior in the church mentioned. Chaplain Doherty, who was brought here by General Merritt, and who is a friend of the archbishop of Manila, wrote to General Otis a long and bitter letter. There were many things in it which displeased General Otis, and Chaplain Doherty was sent home. This only increased the protests that came to General Otis, until at last he ordered Captain Linn to return to America and report to Washington. This order was

the first intimation Captain Linn had that the incident was even under discussion. He naturally feels hurt that no opportunity was given him to offer his side of the story, but he takes with him to Washington personal letters from the mother superiors of the two convents he visited, which are high tributes to his courtesy and consideration. He feels that he, last of all men, should be accused of acting discourteously toward a Catholic institution. He was educated in Notre Dame university, and was graduated from that celebrated Catholic school. His sister is a Catholic, and his newspaper in Wabash, Ind., has always been marked in its friendly relations with the Catholic church.

There is a comradeship between soldiers which bridges all petty difficulties involving nations. It is a familiar sight to see American and Spanish soldiers fraternizing in the most friendly way. At the gates of the walled city, where there are guards constantly posted, a little group of Spanish soldiers, who have nothing much to do but kill time, may nearly always be found. The American soldiers are trying to speak Spanish and the Spaniards are trying to help them out, to the great amusement of both. Between the insurgents and Spaniards there is no interchange of friendliness, for each despises the other, and takes no pains to conceal the fact.

Homesickness is the great and almost unanimous complaint. It is sweeping like a scourge from one end of the army to the other, sparing none. Officers and soldiers have it with equal force, and it is thought that nothing will cure them except the sight of the Golden Gate and perhaps a glimpse of certain good American girls waiting to meet them and welcome them home. The realization has come to all with terrific force that they are missing the pumpkin-pie season, and the thought is usually followed by a relapse. In addition to this distressing reflection comes the prospect of Thanksgiving day with no cranberry sauce and no football games.

When all the Americans who are here or who have been in the campaign in the Philippines reach home they will have carloads of souvenirs to show their friends. Nearly everybody is picking up little mementos of the war. The majority run to small trinkets, such as empty cartridge shells, flattened bullets and other things easily car-

WHEN THE
SOLDIERS
BECAME HOMESICK.

ried, but a few have conducted their looting with Napoleonic vigor. These past masters of pillaging will start home with chests and boxes packed with beautiful and wonderful things. The great prize that every one seeks to obtain is a genuine Spanish flag which has been in use. There have been very few of these obtainable. Spanish swords are also eagerly sought. Then come Mauser rifles, cap ribbons, pieces of shells, chairs, Spanish crests, native knives and weapons, Spanish stationery, maps, books, pictures, soldiers' buttons and caps, paper weights, inkstands, marble tiles, medals, decorations and scores of other things. In some cases the looters have carried their plundering propensities into the churches, but these instances, fortunately, are very few.

Among the things which will be most interesting to the people at home are the native weapons and the native women's wonderful needlework. There is a cloth here which is manufactured of pineapple fiber, and is called pina cloth. The texture is as delicate as a spider's web and in the hands of the women is fashioned into most wonderful designs. I have seen small handkerchiefs which cost \$100 apiece and lace sleeves which run as high as \$200 apiece. When a Philippine lady of the better class gets married she sometimes wears as her wedding dress a costume of native manufacture that reaches in value up into four figures. It takes months to make a handkerchief or a sleeve or a neckerchief, so microscopic and delicate is the fabric. Considering the costliness of the finer kind of native needlework, it is hardly probable that the soldiers will take home many trunkfuls for exhibition purposes.

The great work of Americanizing Manila is going bravely on. It is interesting to see how the humble native is adapting himself to the customs of his conquerors. Already the signs in the streets are being painted in English, several American papers are in the enthusiasm of infancy, every third house sells American beer, and the Escolta in the busy morning hours, when it is booming with traffic, has such an American activity that one forgets he is so far away from home. The Spanish business houses are printing their advertisements in English, and that sterling American institution, pie, was among the first

AMERICANIZING
PROCESS
IN MANILA.

signs that Manila was being brought under Anglo-Saxon influence.

In the streets near the barracks of the soldiers the evidences of invasion are most frequently seen. The Filipinos have been quick to detect the opportunities of the occasion, and the number of drinking places that have sprung up in the last few weeks makes Manila look like a "boom town" in its first year. Dozens of little bars, each one advertising the presence of American beverages, are now in active operation wherever the soldiers are. The bill-poster, also, is busy, and it will not take many months of American occupation to make the beautiful Lunetta gay with big, noisy signboards, such as Chicago has on the lake shore road north of Lincoln park. Even now every fence has its poster advertising some new American industry calculated to supply a long-felt want. Sandwich men bearing placards are also seen here now, moving in long, solemn, single file through the principal thoroughfares.

The martial fever is capturing all the children in town. Every night, while the big regimental parades are wheeling and maneuvering on the Plaza de Bagumbayan, the band playing, horses prancing, and the Lunetta gay with throngs of carriages, the little side streets have their evening drills in miniature. The juvenile Filipinos, armed with bamboo sticks and ranging in age from about three to fourteen, are marching up and down and right and left with as much serious intent as the great battalions on the Plaza. Nearly every boy in town knows the American bugle calls, and the "retreat" and "tattoo" are whistled at all hours and places.

Baseball games are now a regular thing. A league has been formed, and on three afternoons of the week, weather permitting, a game is played out on the diamond of the Plaza de Bagumbayan. Everything showy happens on that plaza, the sea front of which is called the Lunetta. Great crowds always gather to watch the contests, and the hurricane of cheers which greets a three-bagger at a critical point is greater far than those cheers that greeted the planting of the American flag in Manila. For a moment the blue-shirted man at the bat is a greater hero than Admiral Dewey, and there have been one or two games played at the termination of which the star players were carried off in triumph on the shoulders of their admirers. The

Filipinos gather around the fringe of people at the edges of the diamond and wonder what's happening. If the time ever comes when the Filipinos appreciate and cheer the game America can claim them as faithful allies and patriotic citizens.

An exhortation heard on the ball ground the other day illustrates how the American soldiers are getting on with the Spanish language. The coacher was talking, and what he said was something like this:

"Take a lead, take a lead, there off second—get off the base—hurry up—there you go—take a lead—go, go, go—run, run, slide. Ah, mucho bueno!"

The other day a funny thing happened to the Colorado regiment. It was just after the regimental parade in the Plaza de Bagumbayan and the troops were marching off the field. Up in a window along the street stood an officer. As the Colorado boys came along this officer began to discuss with a small Spanish boy in the street the merits of the celebrated Rocky Ford watermelons of Colorado. The

**A MEMORY
OF COLORADO
WATERMELONS.**

effect was electrical. A broad grin swept along the regiment, for everybody who has ever passed through Colorado knows what delicious watermelons come from Rocky Ford, and the thought of watermelons to the Colorado boys was deadly to discipline. The regular formation became irregular, soldiers were turning around to hear more of the conversation, and it seemed that there was imminent danger of the whole line being broken up. To them it was like sitting out in the middle of an endless desert reading about good things to drink; but the officer in the window kept up his tantalizing discussions with the small Spanish boy, who had no idea what he was talking about.

"Rocky Ford watermelons in las estado Colorado, North America, mucho bueno. Grande watermelons, fruta de agua, mucho dulce."

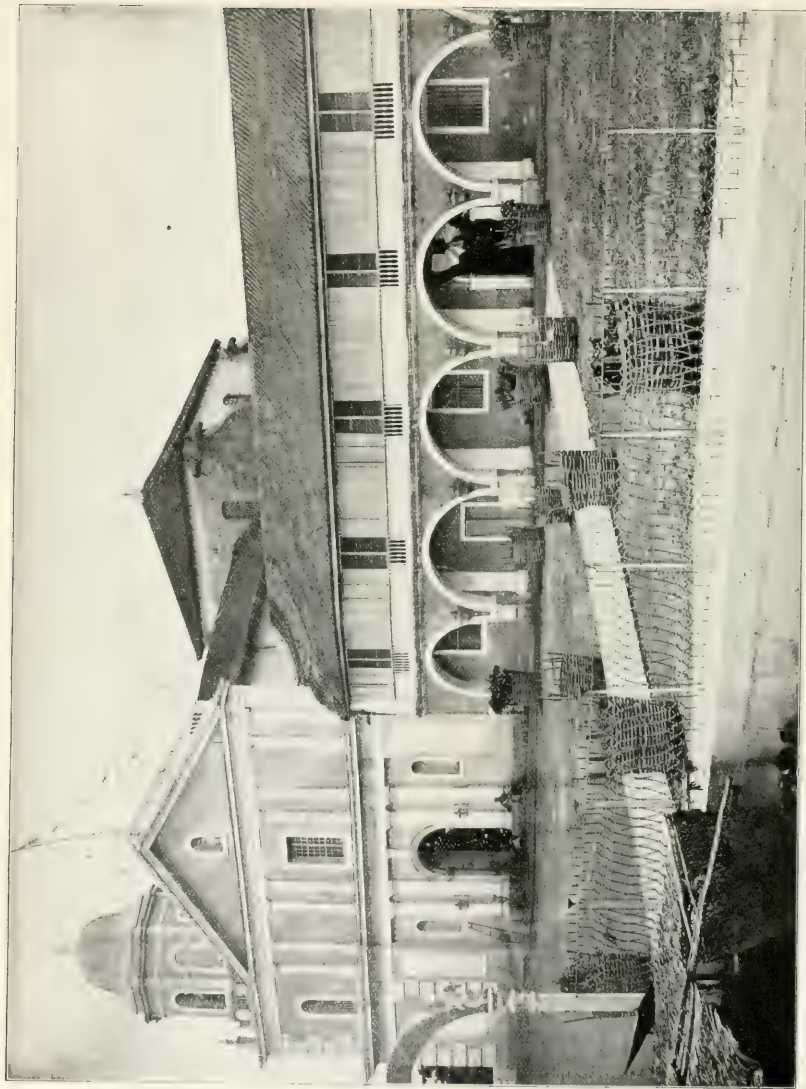
As each company passed the officer worked in the mention of Rocky Ford watermelons, and each company became demoralized. When last seen the troops as they straggled down the street were looking back laughing, with their ranks and rifles in an outrageous state of irregularity.

The same officer suffered for several days with blistered feet. This complaint has been a very common one here, a great many of the



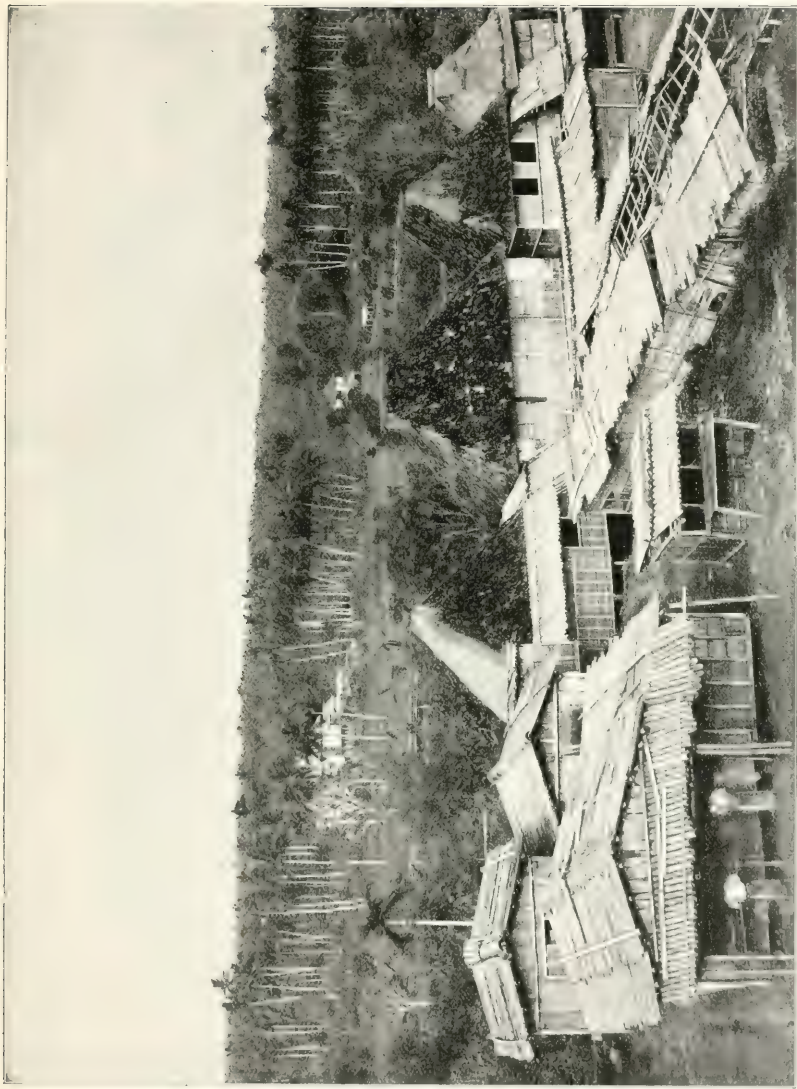
BRIDGE ACROSS THE PASIG RIVER, CITY OF MANILA

This river, which flows into Manila Bay, dividing the city, is the inner harbor which shelters many of the smaller craft. The harbor presents a busy scene, and the bridge itself is employed by thousands of people daily in passing from one part of the city to another. This is the principal bridge across the river.



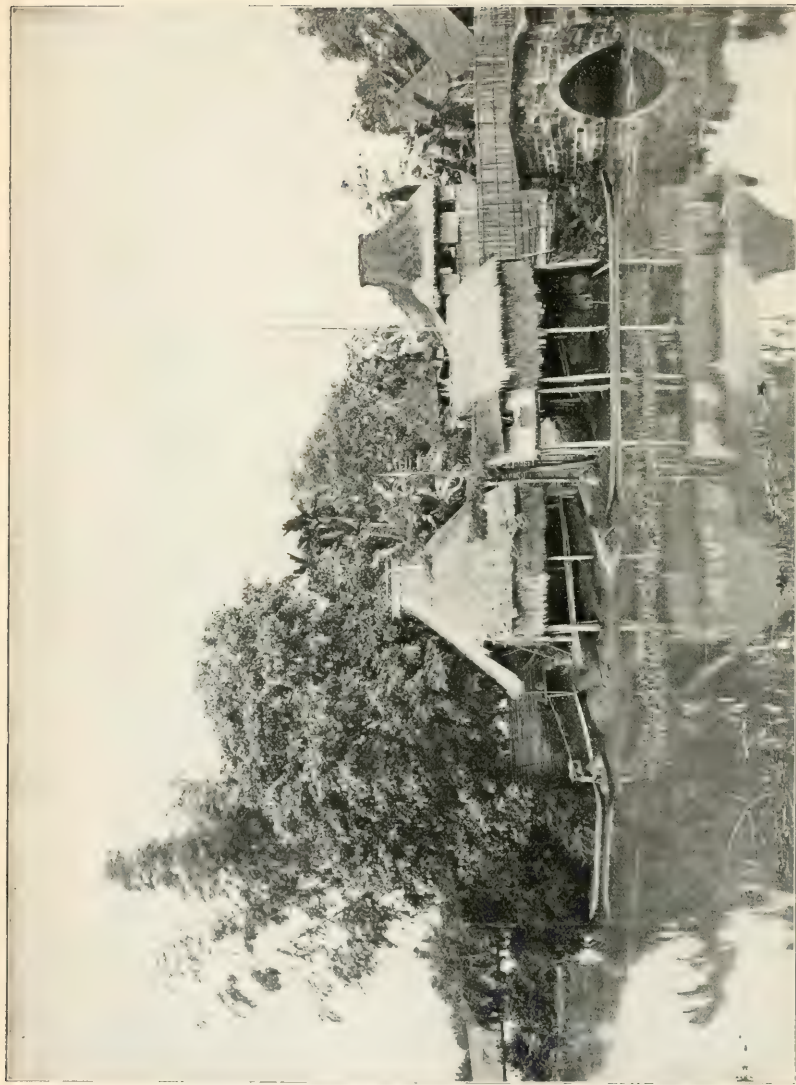
CHURCH AT TOWN OF ANTIPOLO, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This place, fifteen miles from Manila, is the center of a considerable Spanish settlement and consequent commerce. The chief industries in the vicinity are the raising of hemp for rope, and the cultivation of sugar and tobacco. Fairly good roads connect the town with the island capital.



CEBU, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This is one of the Visayan islands of the Philippine archipelago, lying between Negros and Bohol. The city of Cebu, on the island of the same name, was the site of the first Spanish settlement in the Philippines, and from 1565 to 1571 was the capital of the colony.



VILLAGE OF PAMPANGA, ISLAND OF LUZON

This is the sugar district in the vicinity of Manila, and large crops of cane are raised. Early Spanish history in the Philippines names the province of Pampanga frequently. The Chinese were once massacred because of a conspiracy discovered among them to revolt against Spanish authority. Another time the natives of the province revolted, and raised a large army to fight against the Spanish.

soldiers having suffered from it. It comes from the heat and moisture, and in many cases it is exceedingly painful and hard to cure. After a week of suffering and a week of experimenting with his own remedies, he consulted one of the army surgeons and was put under a rigorous treatment. Another week passed, with no improvement. At last he decided to have one foot treated by a Spanish doctor and the other by an American doctor. The remedies were very different. In less than a week the Spanish foot was cured entirely, while the American foot was still as sore as ever. He then applied the Spanish treatment to the American foot, with the result that the latter is getting on splendidly and promises soon to be all right.

A detachment of the Salvation Army has arrived and is occupying a tent near the Puerto de Espana. A good many Americans are here watching chances for investment. One firm has bought up all the prominent saloons in town and is simply coining money. There is a great deal of drunkenness, and the men in this condition are so demonstrative that the Spanish ladies dread driving on the Escolta. All business houses are booming and prices have gone up. So far as trade is concerned a wave of prosperity is making its headquarters in Manila just at present.

Admiral Montojo has left Manila for Spain to appear before a court-martial and tell of his defeat. Before he left he wrote to Admiral Dewey asking that the latter give him a testimonial for bravery. This the American Admiral cheerfully did, and when Montojo is arraigned for cowardice before the dons in Madrid he can pull out a document duly signed by Admiral Dewey, saying that Mr. Montojo did the best he could under the circumstances.

**CHRISTMAS
PRESENTS FOR
HOME FOLKS.**

Along about Christmas there will be thousands of packages and parcels arriving in the United States from Manila. The soldiers out here are thronging the postoffice with all sorts of presents for the folks at home. Along the Escolta are many signs advertising Christmas goods, and the boys are buying everything that will go through the mails. Photographs, souvenir books, souvenir spoons, Mauser bullets made into hat pins and watch charms, Christmas cards, little pieces of jewelry, pina-cloth handkerchiefs, *jusi* fabrics and a hundred other different kinds of things avail-

able in Manila are being sent. It is a popular fad to be photographed in uniform, with a rifle in a threatening position. Many of the men have grown military mustaches and goatees, and look like dashing soldiers, but they shave off the whiskers after being photographed.

In taking possession of the islands in Pacific and Asiatic waters the United States has acquired some new national airs and songs to add to its limited repertory. The Hawaiians have had a national hymn of their own, and in addition thereto must be counted the large number of native songs which are indigenous to the islands. The Filipinos have a national march, which was written by Antonio Comillas, and is the tune which the insurgents have used to inspire them in their battles against the Spanish rulers. The melody is as simple as that of "Yankee Doodle," but it has plenty of animation and swing, and the change of key in the refrain gives it variety. Probably it has served the Filipinos' purposes well enough, and if the islands are to be annexed will make another patriotic anthem for the United States.

The new march does not appear to have any racial character, but no one tune could even suggest all the various kinds of music which the Philippine peoples must possess. The specimens of native Asiatic music which were displayed at the World's Fair were not of a kind to tempt civilized composers as the raw material out of which to make national hymns. The "Philippine National March" is the tune only of the insurgents and of those of the Filipinos who have come under the influence of Spanish civilization far enough to have adopted the European system of notation. If the dominant and intelligent element in Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao continues to grow and acquires control of the archipelago, however, the march may have to be accepted as the representative tune for all the islanders.

Some of the American soldiers at Manila, however, have not been content to pass their time listening to the music of other people. A "Souvenir Song Book," published in Manila, contains twenty-five

**SONGS OF THE
AMERICAN
SOLDIERS.**

original songs and poems written by members of the Eighth army corps. The authors are men of the regular and volunteer regiments of all branches of the service. The songs are strongly suggestive of the tedium of the soldier's life in far-away camps and of the straits to

which he is reduced for amusement. It may be noted, also, as a unique characteristic of the American army that its men should have either the inclination or the ability to amuse themselves in just this way. The verses are often rough and imperfect, but they indicate a liberal acquaintance with the kind of verse which passes current in popular songs and no little knack of imitation. The compilation begins with a song by Charles C. Webster of the Astor battery, who has written new words to the popular college air of the "Prodigal Son." Here are some of the stanzas in which he describes the achievement of "Dewey, the King of the Sea":

"A torpedo boat came out with a dash,
 It did, it did.
 It started for Dewey like a flash,
 It did, it did.
 Not a man at his post was seen to flinch.
 The commander gave the button a pinch,
 Let go his twelve-pounders—oh, what a cinch!
 Sang Dewey, the king of the seas. (Repeat.)

"All this took place on the first of May,
 It did, it did.
 Troops in ships were hurried away,
 They were, they were.
 Re-enforced by batteries H and K,
 John Astor's battery sailed away,
 And they hurried them on to Manila bay,
 Sang Dewey, the king of the seas.

"Now, the four expeditions came in safe and sound,
 They did, they did.
 Intrenchments the Spaniards were planting around,
 They were, they were.
 Since the thirteenth of August they're planting no more,
 They've learned what they never knew before—
 Intrenchments can't stop the Eighth army corps,
 Sang Dewey, the king of the seas."

The popularity of "A Hot Time in the Old Town To-Night" is attested by Burt D. Carrier of the Thirteenth Minnesota volunteers, who writes:

"Come along, get you ready, for we're going to the war,
But it's nothing new to Minnesota, for she's been there before.
We're going to lick the Spaniards, who are anxious for a fight,
But for some unknown reason they keep quite out of sight.

CHORUS.

"Please, oh please, Mr. Spaniard, do not run,
For now that we are started we are bound to have some fun,
And when we reach the Philippines we'll put you on the bum,
There'll be a hot time in Manila that night."

Sentiment and Parodies.

That the American Tommy Atkins has a sweetheart at home there are several songs to show. George W. Moulton of the First South Dakota writes:

"I am lying in my tent, sweet Marie,
And my soul with rage is pent up in G,
For I know almighty well
You have caught another fel,
And your thoughts no longer dwell, love, with me.

"When we kissed a last good-by tearfully,
You but worked a girlish guy off on me.
Oh, you sweet, bewitching jade,
What a clever game you've played,
For your tears were ready made, sweet Marie.

"When I donned the soldier blue, sweet Marie,
Like a picnic woodtick you stuck to me,
And the smile you used to wear
Was as full of gleaming glare
As a sunbeam on a tear, sweet Marie.

"How your cunning head you'd lay, lovingly
On my bosom, while you'd say things to me.
There you'd rest in loving pose,
Right beneath my very nose,
Swiping buttons off my clothes, sweet Marie."

Some of the verses are frankly sentimental in a bluff, boyish way, like the poem by William H. Doyle of the First Montana regiment, who writes eloquently of "A Girl with Dark-Red Hair" who was left behind.

Others are merely versified "roasts" of the conditions inflicted upon a soldier by camp life. A member of the Utah battery dedicates a poem to "The Petrified Hardtack":

"There was hardtack from wars of the past generation,
Which remained unconsumed till this late Spanish war.
'Tis rumored that some, which defied mastication,
Were marked 'civil war,' or the stamp 'B. C.' bore.
What a triumph this is for the skill of the baker.
Indestructible product, defying time's tooth,
But it could not resist the assaults of our grinders—
The grinders we had in the days of our youth.

CHORUS.

"There was 1812 hardtack,
And '62 hardtack,
The old army hardtack we ate in our youth."

A few of the verses are concerned with descriptions of the soldier's heroic achievements, but as a general thing the army poets refuse to take themselves or their deeds seriously.

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CHAPTER VIII.

A RAPID GLANCE AT THE ARCHIPELAGO.

Means of Travel in the Philippines—Primitive Methods of Communication—Native Sail Boats, Water Buffaloes and Coolies—Number and Size of Islands in the Archipelago—How the Seasons Are Divided—The Dreaded Typhoon—The Climate of Manila—How to Retain Health in the Philippines—Fever, Malaria and Other Diseases—Earthquakes and Volcanoes—Mountains and Lakes of the Archipelago—The Rivers and the Forests—Vegetables, Fruits and Minerals—Industries of the Natives.

MOST travelers who have visited the Philippines and most authors who have written about them, have confined themselves in their own journeys and for their sources of information to parts of the islands that are quite as accessible as any Oriental city. Usually the traveler's limit has been a visit to Manila and a few trips into the interior of Luzon. If the tourist extends his journey to Iloilo and Cebu, with a few excursions into the country in the neighborhood of these cities, he departs with complacent satisfaction and the feeling that he has pretty well exhausted the sights of the archipelago. This, however, is far from the truth.

There are more than eighty distinct tribes of the natives who form the bulk of the eight million inhabitants of the island. They are scattered over hundreds of islands, large and small, and wide travel is necessary if one wishes really to know something of the country and its people. It is true in the Philippines, as in every other country, that the traveler who confines his observations to the cities and towns will fail to gain intimate information and knowledge of the essential characteristics of the whole people. In the Philippines, more than most other places, it is necessary to turn one's back upon the cities and towns and turning from the beaten path, push into the almost unexplored regions where the wild tribes are to be found. In the study of these primitive peoples and in the wonders of the tropical forests one

will find ample repayment for the risks and hardships he certainly will be forced to undergo.

Among the islands, means of communication are limited and in many instances primitive. Between the more important cities of the group there are lines of Spanish mail and merchant steamers, which afford tolerably frequent and even comfortable communication, but the difficulties multiply when one attempts to visit the interior of the larger and less explored islands or to reach ports where vessels do not call. Native sailboats must be called into service and extreme discomfort sometimes undergone.

**PRIMITIVE
MEANS OF
TRAVEL.**

The carriage roads, even in the vicinity of the larger towns, are usually in bad condition, impassable in the rainy season, and little improved in the dry. On many a path, called by courtesy a road, one finds it impossible to travel even on horseback. Bridges are few and fords frequently infested by man-eating crocodiles. Every traveler in the Philippines has ultimately to employ the water buffalo or coolies to carry himself and his baggage, or to walk, by choice, for greater comfort.

The number of islands in the archipelago has been given all the way from six hundred to two thousand, a surprising variance of information which should be approximately accurate. The larger estimate is extravagant unless the Carolines and Ladrone islands are included in the count with the Philippines proper. If they are excluded, the number of islands remaining certainly cannot count more than twelve hundred, even if every uninhabited rock and sand-spit that projects above sea level be reckoned. The following is a list of the more important islands, with their approximate area in square miles:

Luzon	41,000	Leyte	3,090
Mindanao	37,500	Negros	2,300
Samar	5,300	Cebu	1,650
Panay	4,600	Masbate	1,315
Palawan	4,150	Bohol	925
Mindoro	4,050	Catanduanes	450

The following islands have areas ranging from about 100 to 250 square miles: Basilan, Busuanga, Culion, Marinduque, Tablas, Dina-

gat, Sulu, Guimaras, Tawi Tawi, Siquijor, Balabac, Sibuyan, Panaon, Camiguin, Romblon, Ticao, Burias, Biliran, Siargao, and Polillo. The total land area is approximately 114,000 square miles, Luzon and Mindanao including more than half of it. Too much

**EXTENT
OF THE
ARCHIPELAGO.**

dependence cannot be placed upon the foregoing figures, even though they are taken from Spanish official estimates. The Pacific ocean side of the archipelago is so little known that an accurate statement of area is hard to be made.

The extreme extent of the archipelago from north to south, counting all the outlying islands and including the Sulu archipelago, is about 1,300 miles, and the extreme breadth about half that distance, the limits of latitude being from five to twenty degrees north of the equator and of longitude from 117 to 127 degrees east of Greenwich.

It is difficult to advise as to the best season for a journey through the provinces, for this varies with the locality to be visited. The whole archipelago except the southerly islands is affected by the trade winds. The southwest monsoon, beginning in April or May, blows for about five months. Then, after a short season of variable winds and calms, follows the northeast monsoon for a similar length of time. The southwest winds usually bring the rains, but the local conditions of locality, altitude and surrounding mountain ranges affect this matter to an extent that rules are hard to apply. A high range of mountains may make weeks of difference in the beginning of the wet season. Rivers often overflow their banks during the months of the rains and extensive floods occur, but even these are much less feared than the destructive whirling storms of wind and rain known as typhoons. The more southerly islands are virtually exempt from these storms, but those

**VIOLENCE
OF THE
TYPHOONS.**

islands and channels where they do occur suffer great loss of property and life from the violent hurricanes. The force of the wind is almost incredible; huge trees are uprooted, houses are unroofed or carried away, and the stanchest ship may suffer destruction if it be in the vortex of the storm.

In an ocean group extending through such a distance, it is necessarily true that the conditions of climate vary considerably, and it is impossible to generalize with accuracy. There is but one place in the



JOSS ROCK, IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Spain has not been able to eradicate Eastern forms of worship in the Philippines, in spite of efforts to convert the natives by either peaceful or violent means, as seems most practicable. The religion of Confucius flourishes among the large Chinese population, and their joss houses are maintained with the same care as in China. This is one of the more picturesque



MOUTH OF THE PASIG RIVER, MANILA

This picture has a special interest in showing the wrecks of two of the small vessels sunk by the American fleet in the attack on the city. The old walled city of Manila is on the extreme right of the picture.

islands where reliable temperature records have been kept, and it is from the observations of the Jesuit observatory in Manila that the following statistics are taken: The mean annual temperature in the capital is 80 degrees, the thermometer almost never rising above 100 in the shade nor falling below 60. There is no month in the year during which it does not rise as high as 91, while the mean monthly temperatures are as follows: January 77, February 78, March 81, April 83, May 84, June 82, July 81, August 81, September 81, October 80, November 79 and December 77. In addition to the fact that the mean temperature of the year is 80 degrees, falling to only 77 in the coolest months, it must be remembered that during most of the time the humidity of the atmosphere is great, which makes the heat doubly trying. Through the winter months the nights are usually fairly cool, but during the hot season there is little relief from one week's end to another.

The climate of the Philippine islands may be wholesome or trying to Americans, according to the place selected for residence and the local conditions, as well as the care that the individual may be able to take of himself. Malaria is very prevalent in some of the islands, notably in Mindoro, Balabac and portions of Talawan, Mindanao and Luzon, but there are many localities entirely free from it.

One who has made a special study into the climatic conditions as they interest Americans speaks concerning those things as follows: "I have never yet experienced at sea level a day when a white man could endure severe physical exertion without suffering from the heat. If one is permanently situated in a good locality where he can secure suitable food and good drinking water; if he is scrupulously careful as to his diet, avoids excesses of all kinds, keeps out of the sun in the middle of the day, and refrains from severe and long-continued physical exertion, he is likely to remain well, always supposing that he is fortunate enough to escape malarial infection. I knew an old Spaniard who at the end of a residence of thirty-nine years in the Philippines was able to boast that he had not been ill a day. He had always been so situated that he could take care of himself and he had done it. But how is it with the explorer, the engineer, the man who would fell timber, cultivate new ground, or in some other way develop the latent

**HOW TO
PRESERVE
GOOD HEALTH.**

resources of the country? Any one really exposed to the climate under such circumstances will find it severe. He cannot humor his digestive apparatus, for his bill of fare will be limited to what he can carry and what the country affords, and he will be fortunate indeed if sooner or later he does not suffer severely from bowel trouble. He will be more than fortunate if he escapes malaria, which is especially prevalent where forest land is being cleared or new ground broken.

"Our work sometimes made it necessary for us to visit localities where fever was known to be prevalent and we came to look upon it as one of the necessary evils of existence. A temperature of 106.5 was not comfortable, but it did not occasion us any alarm. After our third trip to Mindoro the temperature of one member of our party touched that mark on ten consecutive days; and I may add that, although I have visited Mindoro three times with other white men and have each time had considerable numbers of natives in my employ, I have never yet escaped malaria nor was any other member of our party, white or native, more fortunate. The traveler

**MUCH MALARIA
IN THE
PHILIPPINES**

soon learns to recognize several types of fever: one recurs every third day, another every second day and a third daily. If promptly and energetically taken in hand, any of these may be shaken off, but the much dreaded *calentura perniciosa* is a very malignant disease, running its course in a few hours and frequently terminating with black vomit and death. Fortunately *la perniciosa* is very local in its occurrence, and the places where it is known to exist are shunned by natives and whites alike.

"It has been shown in a number of instances that malaria was due to causes that could be remedied. Before the time of General Arolas, Sulu was a fever center. By improving the drainage of the town and by filling in low places with coral sand, he succeeded in almost completely stamping out the disease. Still more striking results were obtained at Tataan, in Tawi Tawi, by an officer who had worked under General Arolas in Sulu. The garrison at this point had suffered terribly and two governors had died there, but after the forest was cleared away for half a mile around the block house and the ground thoroughly cleaned up, fever almost completely disappeared.

"It is unfortunately true that the climate of the Philippines is espe-

cially severe in its effect on white women and children. It is very doubtful in my judgment if many successive generations of European or American children could be reared there. We must then, I think, necessarily admit that we have here a serious, though not necessarily insurmountable, obstacle to the development of the great resources of this remarkable country. Malaria and digestive troubles aside, the health of the colony is fairly good, and the danger from epidemic disease is comparatively slight. Smallpox is always present, but it seldom spreads rapidly, as a large percentage of the natives have it during childhood, so that there is hardly material for an epidemic. Cholera is infrequent, but when it once starts cannot be controlled. The natives believe that a black dog runs down the streets and the disease breaks out behind him. They declare that it is the will of God and refuse to take the simplest precaution. Leprosy occurs, but is not common. There is a great deal of biri-biri in Balabac, and I have seen it in Mindoro. The bubonic plague has, fortunately, never gained a hold in the Philippines."

The forces of nature which raised the Philippine islands from the sea are not yet at rest. Evidences of the action of earthquakes and volcanoes are visible on every hand throughout the archipelago, while elevation and subsidence are going on with great rapidity at the present time. It is not unusual to have a native assure one that he now fishes where his grandfather used to live, or vice versa. Some of the islands, notably Cebu, are covered with limestone caps and give indisputable evidence of having been heaved up from beneath the sea, while in other parts of the archipelago extinct volcanoes, sulphur deposits, old lava beds and boiling springs afford mute witness to the state of things which must have existed in the past.

**VOLCANOES
AND
EARTHQUAKES.**

There yet remain many active volcanoes in the island. The most famous of these is the Mayon, an absolutely perfect cone about 8,900 feet in height, which is in a state of constant activity. It is situated in the island of Luzon, which suffered materially from its last destructive eruption in 1888. Apo, in Mindanao, which is more than 10,000 feet in height, is the tallest of the mountains. The most destructive of the volcanoes is Taal, also in the island of Luzon. It has

been in destructive eruption repeatedly within the past two centuries and is still smoldering. With a height of but 900 feet, it is one of the lowest volcanoes in the world. It lies in the midst of a fresh-water lake and has the form of a very much truncated cone, its entire top having been blown off by a terrific explosion at the time of the last great eruption. Other active volcanoes are found in Mindanao, Camiguin, Luzon, and the islands further northward of Luzon.

Earthquakes are unknown in the Palawan group, but elsewhere in the archipelago they occur frequently and at times have been the cause of considerable damage to life and property.

In all of the larger islands of the Philippines, moderately high mountains are found, there being many peaks ranging between 6,000 and 10,000 feet. Those which are not volcanic are

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS AND FORESTS.	for the most part clothed with vegetation. The peaks of northern Palawan are very rugged and much resemble the American Rockies. In Luzon and Mindanao there are fresh-water lakes and rivers of considerable size. The navigation of the rivers is greatly impeded by shifting sand bars at their mouths, so that vessels drawing more than ten or eleven feet cannot safely enter them.
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Vast areas in many of the islands are still covered with magnificent virgin forests, but the denudation of the country is going on steadily. When a native wishes to start a farm he clears away the trees on a tract of the desired size, burns them, and cultivates the ground thus laid bare. Sooner or later his plantation is invaded by a tall, rank grass known as cogon. With the simple implements at his disposal he cannot kill out this strong growing pest, so he abandons his ground and clears more. When the cogon once gets a hold nothing can compete with it, and the result is the great areas known as cogonales are overgrown with this almost useless grass, which has little utilitarian value. To some extent it is of service for thatch and for firewood, while at the close of the dry season, when the natives burn over the cogonales, the fresh green shoots which spring up after the first showers provide forage for cattle and horses.

The astonishingly fertile soil of many of the islands produces crops year after year without thought of artificial enrichment.

CHAPTER IX.

MANILA AND THE ISLAND OF LUZON.

The Fortifications of the Walled City—Within the Walls—The Foreign Quarter—The Beautiful Drive of the Lunetta—Execution of the Filipinos—Spanish Society on Parade—Expenses of Living—Bull Fighting and Cock Fighting—Music and the Drama—The American Circus—Horse Racing—The Water Front of Manila—Hotels and Their Characteristics—Windows Made of Shells—The Lottery of Manila—How the People Dress—The Homes of Manila—Enemies of Woodwork—The Stores and Shops—The Cemetery of Manila—Around Luzon—The Farmer of the Philippines—When the Insurgents Left Manila.

MANILA has far outgrown its original boundaries as they were when the city was named. The ancient walled city on the southern bank of the Pasig river still comprises the original limits as they were located by the ancient conquerors. Here there is a suggestion of the obsolete fortifications of the middle ages, the walls of gray stone with parapets and bastions, imposing enough and picturesque, but utterly valueless against modern artillery. Fortunate it was for the Spaniards and equally fortunate for the tourist who is to come, that Admiral Dewey did not find it necessary to bombard the place on that August day when General Merritt's forces entered the city.

On the northern side of the walled city the river serves as a moat and on the west the waters of Manila bay approach the walls. On the other two sides moats have been constructed which can be filled with water in the event of an attack. The last time they were employed was in the war with Great Britain in 1762, when General Draper captured the city. The walls altogether encircling the city measure more than two miles in length and are from ten to twenty feet thick. Ancient cannon of picturesque pattern are mounted on top, some of them dating from the end of the thirteenth century. There are, however, a few modern guns.

The masonry of these fortifications has proved its worth. It has withstood the onset of many an assault in olden time, while the hundreds of earthquake shocks that have shaken it have done little damage. The moats have been the receptacle of stagnant water and refuse for many a year and must have been the source of much of the fever which has oppressed the city. Within this wall were the Spanish forces who were surrendered by their commander to Dewey and Merritt when defense was no longer possible.

**MASONRY BUILT
TO BE
PERMANENT.**

The walled city has eight gates equipped with portcullis and draw-bridge after the medieval fashion, but for fifty years they have not been raised. Within the walls are found many of the government offices, a post-office and telegraph office, the old custom house, convents, colleges, a cathedral, eleven churches, an observatory and an arsenal. Many shops and small stores are situated here.

The old city of Manila offers picturesque sights for the tourist, but is not the one where he would choose to stay after he had exhausted the sights. In the "new" city outside the walls there is more cleanliness, more fresh air, more modern buildings, and a number of very pretty parks and public gardens. This is on the other side of the Pasig river from the walled city and is known as Binondo, a great trading center where all the foreign merchants have their places of business. Here many of the streets are fairly well paved and in some instances

**WORK OF
THE CHINESE
ELEMENT.**

as wide as those we are accustomed to at home. The retail shops are nearly all in the hands of Chinese merchants, many of them of great wealth and prominence. Their countrymen of humbler station are seen on every street, performing much of the manual labor of the city. Chinese coolies carry burdens, drive carts and do much of the heaviest work. Chinese tradesmen are the leaders in most of the mechanical industries and trades, this in spite of the fact that Chinese labor is supposed to be discountenanced by the people and the laws as they have existed under the Spanish rule.

The great show places of Manila are the Santa Lucia and the Lunetta. These drives run from the Pasig river, along the sea front of the walled city, and then out across the immense open parade ground

which separates the walls of Manila from the suburbs of Ermita. They are practically one continuous road, but the mile that fronts the city walls is called the Lucia and the broader oval park-like extension is the Lunetta. Rows of waving, stubby palm trees mark the edges of the drives and electric-light poles line the borders throughout their entire length. In the old days these avenues were famous for their beauty and display. It is doubtful whether any other city in the orient could rival them for brilliance and fashionable luxury.

It is also doubtful whether another drive exists which is so grim in tragic memories as the beautiful Lunetta. Hundreds of Filipinos have been executed there. In the mornings the crowds would throng the drives to see the Filipinos shot and in the evening they would gather again to hear the music at the bandstand. But the war has stopped all of that. The Lunetta became neglected as the insurgents kept advancing closer and closer to the borders of the city. The Spanish officials who had robbed and murdered to their hearts' content were afraid to venture out at night beyond the walls of the city for fear of being assassinated by natives who hungered for revenge. Strong barricades were built at the corner of the walled city just where the Lucia merges into the broader Lunetta, and the Spaniards never ventured beyond that barricade of railroad iron and sacks of earth. When the Americans took the city it was days and days before the proud Spaniards would show themselves, but now they are again venturing out beyond the walls and the Santa Lucia is regaining something of its former gayety.

In the evening when the sun is sinking behind the Mariviles mountains the wealth and fashion of Spanish Manila emerges from the gloomy streets of the walled city and shows itself in dress parade on the water front. All the soldiers who are prisoners of war also come out for a breathing spell. Carriages roll up and down and back and forth through the short length of the Lucia. Rows of other vehicles are drawn up along the edges, the occupants smoking and lazily watching the passing show. Pretty women, bareheaded, and dressed in cool, refreshing white, look enchanting to one who has seen nothing but yellow and brown Malay girls all summer and whose experiences in society have been confined to young, barefooted Philippine ladies who smoke

**BEAUTIES
OF THE
LUNETTA.**

cigars and wear gauze waists with rags reefed around them. The surf rolls in long curling ridges, the palm trees wave in the fresh evening air, the ships of the fleet lying out in the bay twinkle with lights, and the Mariviles mountains and Corregidor away to the west fade into purple shadows. When the full moon comes out it lights up the domes and towers of the city and spreads a radiance of white across the bosom of the bay. The air is full of the music of crickets and grasshoppers, and the fragrance of flowers steals out of the verdure along the drive.

The Americans have taken little part in the showy display which comes each evening along the Santa Lucia. Occasionally a soldier in service-worn buff clatters along on a little Philippine horse, but there has been no general inclination to mix with the brilliant show on the avenue. Dr. Farrell, one of the surgeons of the 1st California, astounded the Spaniards by appearing on the Lucia driving a carriage four-in-hand. When it is considered that the Spanish laws here forbid any one besides the archbishop and the governor-general appearing behind a four-in-hand, the extent of the sensation which Dr. Farrell caused may be imagined. Colonel Jewett, the judge-advocate, who has a fine carriage, is one of the few Americans who have contributed to the evening display on the Lucia.

At 8 o'clock it is all over, for that is the dinner hour in Manila. The carriages gradually disappear within the somber sallyports of the old moss-covered walls, and at 8:30 hardly one remains. The Spanish soldiers still linger along the little benches until the hour comes for them to return within the walls, and then the Lucia and Lunetta are quiet. Only an occasional caromata rattles over the beautiful drive.

Between the Lunetta and the district of the city where the working classes live, the contrast is startling. The filth of the latter is appalling and the houses are hovels crowded with human beings, animals and vermin. Here start the epidemics which are so fatal to the city population.

**EXPENSES
OF LIVING IN
MANILA.**

The public improvements of the city have not been as meager as might have been expected. There is an excellent system of waterworks and a fairly good fire department. Fortunately the comforts that are most essential are the least expensive, and consequently in reach of many people. Rents



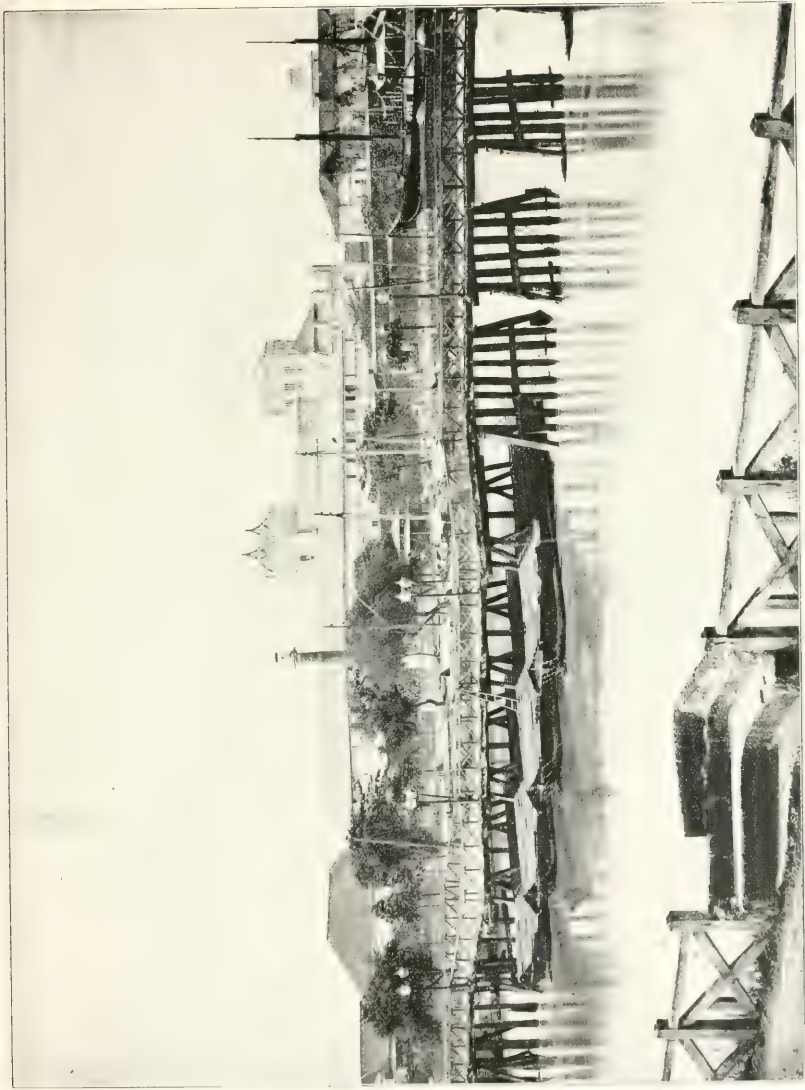
LABORERS IN TIN MINES, MINDANAO

Among the other valuable mineral products of the Philippine archipelago, tin has an important place, although the mines have been but little developed. Most of the tin is found in the one island, although it is quite possible that systematic explorations would result in the discovery of veins elsewhere in the Philippines. A productive tin mine is a source of great wealth to its owner.



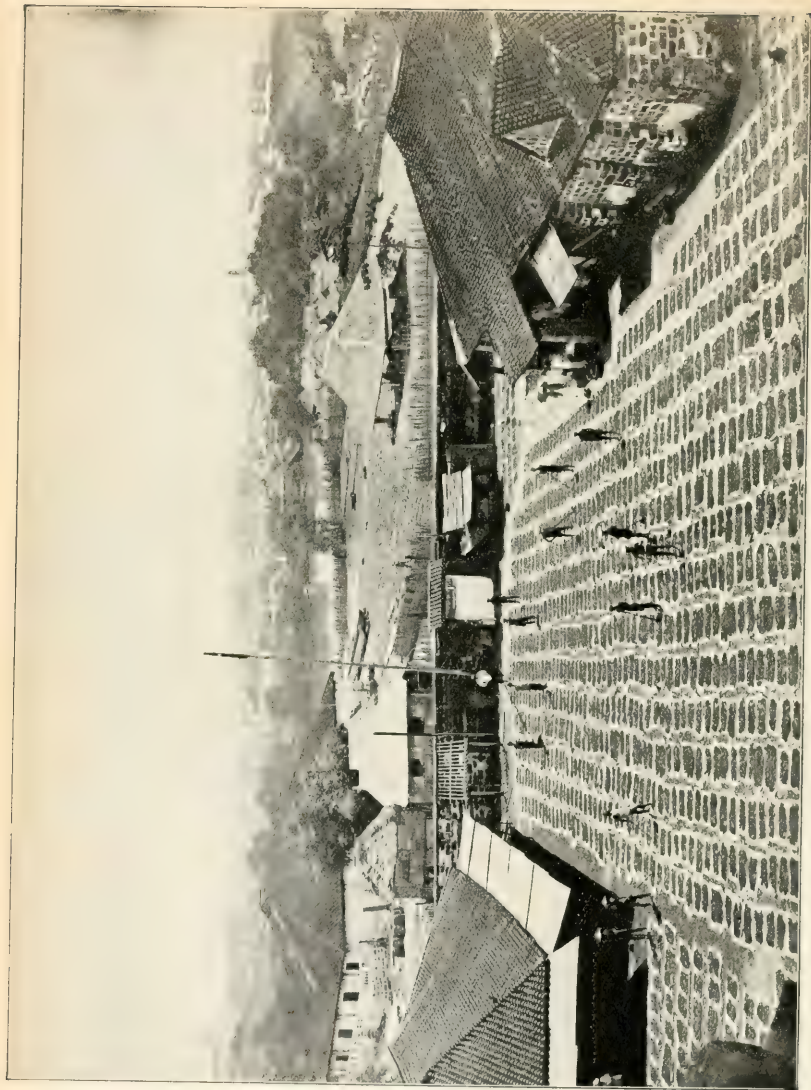
VILLAGE OF SACLOBAN, ISLAND OF LEYTE, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The island of Leyte is one of the Visayan group of the Philippines, the more important of which group are Panay, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Samar, and Leyte, which lies between the two last named. It has an area of more than 3,000 square miles.



SCENE ON THE PASIG RIVER, CITY OF MANILA

The church in the background is the famous one of Santo Domingo, one of the patron saints of the Philippines. The monument among the trees was erected in honor of Magellan, the discoverer of the archipelago. The bridge of boats in the foreground is one of the famous bridges of the city of Manila.



SUGAR DRYING, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This is a scene which will very soon become familiar to American travelers in the Philippines. The crude sugar is carried into the court-yards in great pans, and is there placed on the flagstones to dry in the tropic sun. In this stage of its manufacture, sugar is very dark brown in color. There are no sugar refineries in the Philippines.

are very low; servant hire is so cheap that one can have a retinue at the cost of a single house maid at home. Carriages and horses are likewise inexpensive, whether one keeps his own vehicles or hires them at his will. The equipages, however, are very queer in appearance measured by American standards, and the horses by no means equal to those we drive at home.

The sports of Manila are materially different from those to which we are accustomed, for their favorites have been bull-fighting and cock-fighting. The bull ring of Manila, in the suburb of Paco, draws great crowds when the entertainment is offered, in spite of the fact that the performances are by no means spirited. Neither Spanish bull-fighters nor Spanish bulls are brought to the island, so that native talent has to be obtained to play both roles. The bulls are timid and lazy, the bull-fighters are little better, so that the traveler does not see bull-fighting of the same sort that he would in Spain, Cuba or Mexico.

Cock-fighting, on the other hand, is maintained at as high a station as its rival is low. The government shares the profit from the sport by taxing it and issuing licenses with a carefully regulated legal code. There are official galleries or cock-pits and the regulations are minute as to the terms of betting, the character of the spurs, and other details. The Spanish code on this subject for the Philippines contains no less than one hundred specific sections. The clergy of the island have been among the best patrons of the sport. They are successful breeders, skillful handlers and regular bettors. The officers of the Spanish army and navy have been good patrons. The galleries are always well patronized and on Sundays and feast days crowded to suffocation.

**COCK-FIGHTING
A FAVORITE
SPORT.**

Music and the drama are popular in some forms and in others are neglected. The three theaters of Manila give rather dull performances of comedies, farces and melodramas. When the city is visited by real dramatic companies from Hongkong or by an Italian opera company, patronage is generous. Military music is specially favored by the people and some of it is of more than average quality. The Spanish regimental bands are usually excellent, while the Filipinos themselves have organized at least one notably fine band of ninety pieces.

The most popular of all amusements brought by strangers to the

city is the American circus. As is well known, every circus in the far East is called American in order to obtain the advertising which accompanies the name. When these organizations come to Manila from Hongkong or Amoy, they are almost overwhelmed by the warmth of their reception. No company plays a shorter season than three weeks, while some remain two and three times that long.

Horse-racing in Manila is directed by the jockey club, which holds a week of races every year. The membership includes nearly all of the European and American colony, as it has been constituted before the

**RACE WEEK
IN THE
FOREIGN COLONY.**

war. The club has a fine track and generous purses are awarded. The riding is done by gentlemen jockeys, there being no professionals in the country. The animals are very small, much after the fashion of American polo ponies, but the races are popular and afford excellent sport for the social world. The club entertains liberally during the race week.

The water front of Manila affords interesting and picturesque sights for the stranger. The anchorage is usually crowded with steamers and sailing vessels. In the river, huge cargo barges or lighters move slowly up stream conveying freight from the vessels in the harbor to the warehouses on shore. Along the banks of the river are the smaller steamers, schooners and other craft from the island provinces, which are of sufficiently light draft to cross the bar and reach the docks. Then there are huge canoes, small dug-outs, ferry-boats for Cavite and places up the river, so that the scene is always a busy one.

When the passenger lands there is the same clamor for the privilege of driving him to the hotels that results from cabmen's rivalry the world over. There are three styles of carriages for rent in Manila. These are the two-horse carriage or barouche, the *quelis* and the *caromata*. The carriage is the eminently proper thing to take. The *quelis* is a little square two-wheeled trap, with the driver perched up in front and seats for four inside. The *caromata* or native cart, with its one dilapidated pony and rope harness, is a top-heavy, two-wheeled institution which continually threatens to overturn. The driver rides inside with the passengers, sometimes sitting in their laps.

There are various hotels in Manila with varying degrees of excellence, although none satisfy an exacting American traveler who is unwilling to put up with Filipino customs. No doubt an American hotel will be one of the earliest and most profitable ventures after peace is assured. The best hotels in the city are the Hotel de Oriente and Hotel de Europa, either of which will answer till something better is constructed. The others, however pretentious their names may be, such as Hotel de Madrid, Hotel del Universa and La Catalanta, are of the next grade lower and hardly to be considered by the American traveler.

**HOTELS AND
THEIR
QUALITY.**

As a result of the threat of earthquakes, one seldom sees buildings more than two stories high and the heavy tile roofs formerly in use have been replaced by lighter ones of galvanized iron. The consequence of this is that the heat within the houses, radiated from the roofs, sometimes becomes intense. Window glass is little used in the houses. Little squares of translucent oyster shells are used instead, which soften the glare of the tropical sun. The sides of upper stories in the houses are often constructed almost entirely of frames filled with these little shells so arranged that they can be slid back, thus throwing the entire room open to the breeze. The living rooms are almost invariably in the second story, the ground floor being used for servants' quarters, shops, offices or store-rooms.

Most of the streets of Manila are wretchedly paved or not paved at all. They are inadequately lighted, some by kerosene lamps and others even by wicks suspended in dishes of cocoanut oil.

There is, however, an electric light system, which will be extended rapidly. Diminutive street cars, each drawn by a single pony, run on two different lines into

**CITY STREET
CHARACTER-
ISTICS.**

the suburbs. The principal business street is the Escolta, where the Spanish, French and German stores are located. They have carried fair assortments of European goods, but the prices have been high on account of the excessive import duties. The Chinese shops, on the other hand, are mostly found on the Rosario, another important business street. The city is entirely without any adequate system of drainage. Canals radiate from the Pasig river in various directions and into these

the filth of the city is dumped whenever it is not allowed to accumulate about the houses.

The Manila lottery is one of the notable institutions of the islands. The Spanish government has derived from it an annual profit of half a million dollars, while the tickets have been distributed not only throughout the archipelago, but in Hongkong and along the China coast. The inborn gambling instinct of the Filipino is thus fostered and many a poor fellow spends his last cent for lottery tickets and then goes to jail for not paying his taxes. Estimates of the population of Manila have been varied and doubtful. The most authentic information, however, places the total population at about 300,000, of which natives number 200,000. The Chinese are credited with 40,000 of the remainder, the Chinese half-breeds 45,000, the Spanish and Spanish creoles 5,000, the Spanish half-castes about as many, and the Europeans and Americans other than Spanish about 400.

Most of the Spanish are army and navy officers, who must dress in uniform, but unless there is some good reason to the contrary all Europeans wear white duck suits over very thin underwear. The Chinaman sticks to his national costume, while the people of mixed blood almost invariably adopt the native dress, which for men consists of hat, shirt, pantaloons and slippers.

The dress of the native women is very pretty when good materials are used, and so well adapted to the climate that many European and American women adopt it for their home attire. It consists of a thin waist, called the *camisa*, with huge flowing sleeves; a more or less highly embroidered white chemise showing through the *camisa*; a large kerchief folded about the neck with ends crossed and pinned on the breast; a gayly colored skirt with long train and a square of black cloth drawn tightly around the body from waist to knees. Stockings are not worn as a rule and the slippers which take the place of shoes have no heels and no uppers except for a narrow strip of leather over the toes. It is an art to walk in these without losing them, but the native belles contrive to dance in them and feel greatly chagrined if they lose their foot-gear in the operation.

Many of the Mestiza or half-caste women and girls are very attrac-

tive, and, like the native women, they have beautiful hair, which not infrequently reaches to their heels and of which they are inordinately proud. They also take pride in small feet, if they happen to possess them, and it is not at all unusual to see slippers which are quite too small for their owners and leave some of the toes dangling helplessly outside.

On account of the climate, which is conducive to indolence, nearly everybody who can afford the time takes a nap or siesta in the middle of the day. Meals and business alike are arranged to suit this custom and the hours of labor are not burdensome in any calling. Coffee and fruit are served in the early morning. An exceedingly light breakfast is provided about 8 o'clock. Tiffin, which is a substantial luncheon with several hot dishes, is taken at noon, and dinner is served at 8 o'clock in the evening.

In deference to the earthquake and the typhoon, architecture in Manila takes peculiar forms. The only high buildings are the churches, and these are built with very thick walls. The public buildings are heavy and gloomy. In the business quarter the houses are of two stories with enormously thick walls and partitions. The Malay bungalows in the suburbs are one-story, supported with tiles or stone foundations and covered with thatch. In the Chinese quarter the buildings are chiefly one-story and where two-storied have the lower one of great solidity and the upper one so light as to be almost fragile.

**HOUSES AND
THEIR
ENEMIES.**

Another enemy of houses never to be ignored is the white ant. This energetic creature, as well as two or three of his allies, is so voracious that the wooden beams and floors of houses frequently must be renewed after their attacks. Every effort has been made by the people to avert the ravages of the ants; they have tried varnishing the woods and painting them with poisonous compounds, on all of which the ants seem to thrive. There are some woods which are less subject to the pest than others, but none is entirely exempt.

Houses follow the example of those in Spain and the Spanish-American countries for their interior arrangement. Almost always the dwelling is built around an open quadrangle or else there is a driveway through the house with a courtyard in the interior or at the rear

of the building. Sometimes the house sets back from the street, secluded by a high wall. Rooms, halls, carriageway and courtyard are smoothly paved with blocks of stone brought from quarries in China. The walls are covered with whitewash and stone stairways lead to the second floor, where the choicer living apartments always are found. Windows and doors are left open as much as possible and refreshing breezes moderate the heat of nearly all seasons. It requires no exertion on the part of a householder to make his home beautiful. Nature will do it all. Mosses, vines and flowers cover every wall and trees sprout everywhere, all with blossoms and blazes of color in every place, expected and unexpected.

Stocks of goods kept by the merchants of Manila are always small, because of the excessive and indiscriminate taxation which has been applied under the Spanish regime. The dealer makes
WHAT MERCHANTS as little display as possible, in order to avoid the ap-
HAVE pearance of wealth and consequent taxation. How-
FOR SALE. ever, the stocks of goods are fairly well selected and anything ordered can be obtained promptly from the bonded warehouses. Clothing for men and women alike is made to order in less time than anywhere else on earth, and the goods themselves are brought to the home of the customer for selection instead of requiring a shopping expedition.

Silver and gold jewelry, made by native workmen and sold in the stores of Manila, is peculiarly interesting and attractive. Basket-work of all sorts and fancy matting are another offering of the shops of peculiar interest to strangers. Confections of guava and other fruits prepared with native sugar, appeal to those fond of sweetmeats. Chinese stores offer fans of all sorts from the highest to the lowest price. Parasols and umbrellas, which are required by everyone, whether in dry or rainy seasons, form a large part of the wares of the shopkeepers. Altogether, the stranger in Manila may find plenty of novelties to buy for souvenirs of his journey, characteristic of the country and exceedingly interesting to the people at home.

One of the most interesting spots of Manila is the old Paco cemetery, with its massive walls suggestive rather of a defense for the living than of a last refuge of the dead. The cemetery is in a circular

space inclosed by a huge wall of masonry eight or nine feet thick and ten feet high. The only entrance is through a gate of iron and wood of great strength, which still further adds to the appearance of fortification. Within this circular wall is a second wall built in the same manner, presenting a solid front to the exterior. The interior is a

MANILA'S
ANCIENT
CEMETERY.

honeycomb of crypts in which the coffins of the dead are placed, the entrance being sealed by small ornamental tablets of stone bearing the names of the dead. In many of the crypts there is a double door, the outer one being of glass, through which quaint images of the Virgin and the infant Christ or some other decoration such as rudely fashioned artificial flowers are seen. Each crypt rents for about \$35 yearly—a small fortune for these people—and when the inmate is forgotten or the relatives become impoverished or for any reason this rental is unpaid the remains are immediately swept from the tomb and cast into a common receptacle for all like unfortunates—"the bone-yard."

In this mixture of history and description, is the place to tell the story of the withdrawal of General Aguinaldo and his forces from the city of Manila into the country. Luzon was so entirely under the sway of the insurgents that there was little difficulty for them in finding a welcome in the country, once they decided to accept the inevitable and withdraw from the capital.

When General Otis sent word to the insurgents that they must withdraw their forces from Manila and its suburbs there was a settled conviction that trouble would result. The time limit was set at September 15, and as this time drew near and no movement was manifest in the native barracks the American lines were strengthened and preparations made for the encounter which then seemed unavoidable. On the 14th, however, it was stated on official authority that the insurgent generals had agreed to move out of the city and to vacate the convents and private houses that they had appropriated for their military uses. They had gone to General Otis, and after a long consultation this peaceful solution of the difficulty had been reached.

With practical unanimity the leaders protested that they were entirely friendly to the American forces and that they did not desire

to do anything which would appear unfriendly. They would willingly withdraw their troops from the city provided some assurance were

**WHEN THE
INSURGENTS
LEFT MANILA.**

given them that if the Americans left the Philippines they, the insurgents, would be left in as strong positions as they had occupied before the city was surrendered. Another point was brought forward very strongly which they said they were exceedingly concerned in knowing. This was whether or not the Spaniards would be placed in their former defenses and given the arms that had been surrendered, and whether the relative positions of the Spanish and insurgent forces would be established as they were before the city was surrendered.

General Otis told them that if the Americans left the Philippines the Spaniards would be restored to their defensive positions and their arms given them. This did not please the insurgents, but they agreed that such an action would be just and was to be expected. Some of them, notably General Pio del Pilar, a fire-eater who has had command of the forces at Paco, showed a keen resentment against being sent out of the city, and it was thought for a time that General Pilar would rebel against the acquiescence of the majority. At noon on the 14th there was great activity among the insurgents. Officers were riding around and big numbers of troops were centralizing in the different out-lying districts. Even then it was a doubtful matter whether or not they were to retire peacefully or whether a few of the rebellious hot-headed commanders would refuse to abide by the verdict of the majority.

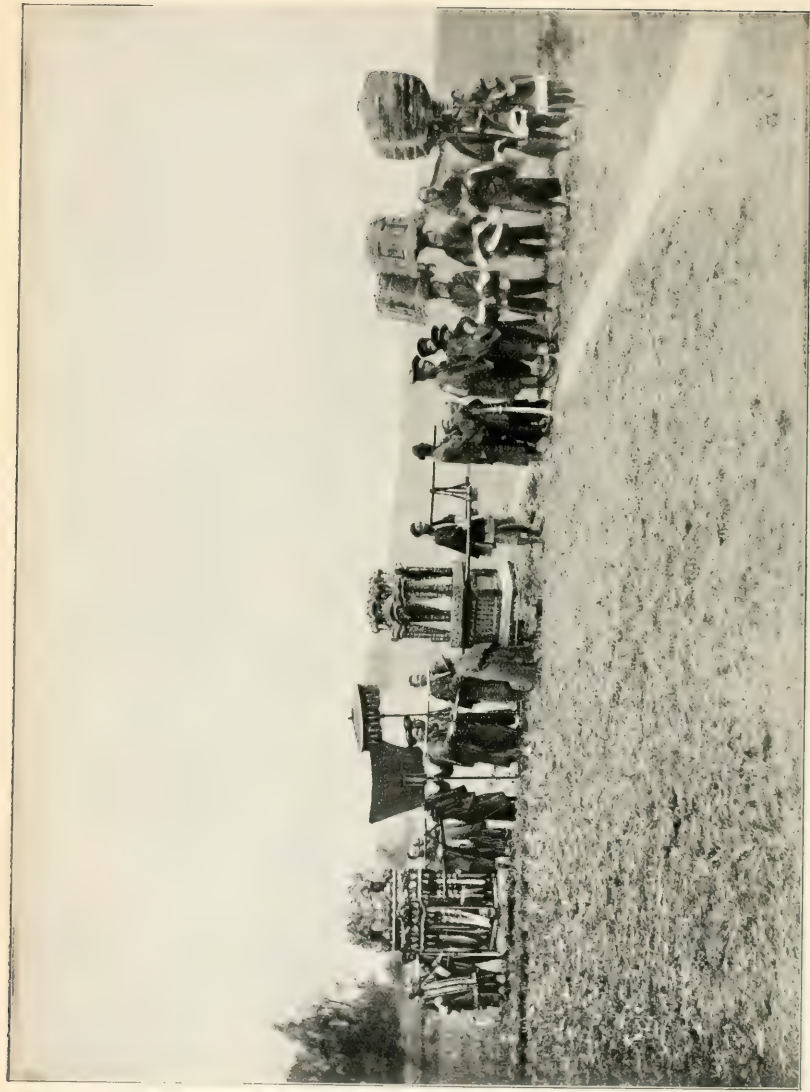
A request was made by them of the American general commanding the Malate and Ermita division that they be permitted to march up the Lunetta with their arms and pass along the ground where the Spaniards used to shoot the Filipinos. It was a pretty sentiment and General Ovenshire gave his consent.

At 5:30, out of the Calle Real in Ermita appeared an officer on a fiery native pony. He was Colonel Callais, one of the ablest officers in the entire insurgent army, a man whose whole soul was in the cause, who is well educated and a fine strategist, and who has a nobility of bearing that marks him a soldier and a man of high qualities. Close at the heels of his pony came the magnificent Pasig band, composed



STREET SCENE IN SAMPOLOC, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This is one of the best-kept native villages, and the view is a particularly satisfactory one in showing the architecture of native houses of the better class. The people are quite well-satisfied with the kind of homes they have, and never have been sufficiently attracted by the European style of architecture introduced by the Spanish to attempt imitations of it.



NATIVE WEDDING FESTIVAL IN THE PHILIPPINES

The social customs of the people of the islands we have just annexed are altogether different from those to which we are accustomed, but are more picturesque and interesting on that very account. Like the people of all lands, weddings are events of great consequence to them, and their celebrations are highly pretentious ceremonials.

entirely of native musicians and numbering ninety pieces. Every man was in uniform and the piece they played was a stirring wild native march that set the horses to prancing and everyone who listened tingling with enthusiasm. Then came the troops, hundreds and hundreds of them, all in blue drilling and every man with his rifle. There were over six hundred of them and the picture their bright uniforms made as the columns of four wheeled out of the Calle Real, down the Calle San Luis, with the bands playing and the horses tearing back and forth, was one never to be forgotten. Throngs of people watched the long lines march by. There was something pathetic about the whole incident, for they were being driven out of the city which they had fought so long to get into, and even though their presence within the American lines was a constant menace and their withdrawal absolutely necessary one could not help feeling sorry for them.

**PATHOS OF
THE SITUATION
REALIZED.**

Down the Calle San Luis they marched, then down the Paco road toward the walled city, to the Calle Bagumbayan, and then began their triumphal march past the walls of old Manila, where the ramparts were thronged with Spanish prisoners watching the departure of their enemies. This was the nearest that a rebel flag had ever approached the walled city, and it must have been a source of satisfaction to the insurgents to show their strength to their hated oppressors by parading right under the ancient walls. Scores of carriages were drawn up along the line of march, and many of them contained Spanish officers.

The Wyoming soldiers lined up and cheered the insurgents as they marched by the Wyoming barracks, and it sounded strange to hear one force cheering another which the day before was looked on as half an enemy. It was a good thing, however, and it made the insurgents feel good.

Swinging from the Calle Bagumbayan, which circles the eastern and southern sides of the walled city, the departing native troops turned down the Lunetta and straight on out the Calle Real, never stopping until they left the suburbs far behind. Over in Tondo and in Paco and in Sampaloc and in the other suburbs where the insurgents had massed this scene was being repeated, although not with such a show nor with

so many bands. In the twenty-four hours of September 14 over four thousand armed insurgents marched out of the city, and although many of them returned later they were unarmed and in consequence welcome to stay as long as they chose.

General Otis conducted the arrangements for the departure of the insurgents very skillfully, for it was a delicate situation and an ill-advised move might have thrown the two forces into active conflict.

The next day (September 15) marked the opening of the congress of the Philippine revolutionary government at Malolos. This town is thirty-eight kilometers north of Manila, and it is the place where Aguinaldo has set up his government. Several Americans attended the opening. The train from Manila was jammed with natives, and a great many prominent Philippine merchants and lawyers were on board.

**FILIPINO
CONGRESS AT
MALOLOS.**

About eighty representatives from different parts of the Philippine islands were in Malolos to represent their various districts. The town was decorated with insurgent flags of all colors. Any design that remotely approached the red and blue of the true flag was made to serve, and every nipa hut had its rudely fashioned flag floating out from the banana and palm trees. Congress was held in a church. The first session was short and not imposing.

Aguinaldo, in swallow tail and a dazzling shirt front, called the meeting to order, read his address and then retired. The session was adjourned until the following day, and time given the members to discuss the articles of the new constitution. Through the courtesy of Aguinaldo the American newspaper men, Consul Williams and several other Americans were given an abundant luncheon. Speeches were made by prominent members of the congress and every expression of friendship was made. It was hard to realize that the day before the American forces had thrust the insurgents out of the city of Manila.

There were loud "Viva Americanos," and the guests were made to feel that they were among friends. No people are more hospitable than the Filipinos. At one time during the luncheon a Spaniard from Manila, who was connected with a business house there, was arrested on the street near where the Americans were located for attempting to arouse public feeling against the Americans. He had been circu-

lating wild stories, tending to inflame the more ignorant natives against the visitors, but the insurgent leaders ordered his immediate arrest. The Pasig band was in Malolos, and the city looked gala in the extreme.

Aginaldo was quartered in an old convent, which had been converted into a place of considerable grandeur. Here he received delegates and friends with that serene, implacable look which is so peculiar to him.

Just southwest of the province of Manila lies the province of Cavite, which is one of the most important on the island of Luzon. At the northern end of the province the land runs out into Manila bay in a long peninsula, which in turn divides into two smaller ones pointing toward the mainland. This is the site of the city of Cavite, which, besides being the capital of the province, also has been the northern naval station of the Philippine government. Here was the scene of the destruction of the Spanish fleet by the American squadron under Admiral Dewey. The city of Cavite is about six miles and a half from Manila and is connected with the capital by frequent ferryboats.

**PROVINCE
AND TOWN OF
CAVITE.**

Luzon, with an area of 42,000 square miles, includes more than a third of the total extent of the land surface of the Philippine islands. In its northern portion are extensive chains of lofty mountains with many volcanic peaks, active and interesting. One of them, the Mayon volcano, in Albay province, is a perfect cone rising to a height of more than ten thousand feet. The volcano of Taal, on the other hand, in the same range, is one of the lowest active volcanoes known.

In Luzon are river and lake systems second only to those of Mindanao. The Rio Grande de Cagayan, which rises near the center of the island, flows into the ocean at the northern extremity and drains an immense area of great fertility. Here is grown the best tobacco raised in the archipelago. The river is navigable for some distance, although the bar at the mouth obstructs the entrance for steamers of more than ten feet draft. The Pantanga river also rises in South Caraballo mountain, but flows in the opposite direction, emptying into Manila bay by a delta with more than twenty mouths. The low ground

along its banks is extensively cultivated and produces good crops of rice and sugar cane.

The Laguna de Bay, which is but a few miles inland from Manila, is the largest body of fresh water in the archipelago, although some

**LAKES AND
RIVERS OF
LUZON ISLAND.**

of the Mindanao lakes approach it closely in size. Its greatest length is twenty-five miles and its greatest breadth twenty-one. It empties into Manila bay by the Pasig river, which separates the newer portion of the capital from the old, and is navigable to the lake for small, flat-bottomed steamers. Lake Bombon, from the center of which rises Taal volcano, measures fourteen by eleven miles.

The natural resources of Luzon are enormous. Rich deposits of gold and other valuable minerals have long been known to exist. The soil is very productive and yields the greater part of the sugar raised in the archipelago, together with hemp, coffee, cacao, rice, tobacco, and, in fact, all the more important staple products of the colony.

Luzon is the most populous island of all the Philippine archipelago, some estimates as to the numbers of its inhabitants running as high as 5,000,000. The most important of the numerous tribes into which the people are divided are the Tagalogs and the Ilocanos. Both are civilized and as a rule orderly, although brigandage is not uncommon in the Tagalog territory. It is from this tribe that the greater part of Aguinaldo's support in the insurrection of the Filipinos has been drawn. In a later chapter on the people of the Philippines, more detailed information will be included on the races inhabiting this island.

The absence of proper railway facilities is not as great a handicap in the Philippines as it might be in some other countries, for the remarkably irregular coast-line and the extended interior water systems enable the traveler to reach the greater part of the archipelago by boat. There are little, light-draft steamboats which go almost everywhere and which charge very low fares, while upon every navigable stream, lake and bay are small boats which can be hired for an insignificant sum.

A steamer runs from Manila northward along the west coast of Luzon nearly to Cape Bojeador. At any one of several ports the traveler who is willing to undergo discomfort may begin an excursion

into the interior of the island, where scenery of great beauty will be found and native manners and customs may be studied in their most primitive condition. There is very little danger to the traveler in the extreme north along the coast, for the natives are hospitable to the limit of their means and quite docile. The country is little cultivated by civilized methods except in the more accessible portions, and opportunities for development by American capital and energy are enormous.

**CONDITIONS
FACING
THE TRAVELER.**

CHAPTER X.

ILOILO AND THE VISAYAN ARCHIPELAGO.

Islands of the Visayan Group—Insurgent Complications at Iloilo—The Journey from Manila to Panay—Arrival at the City—Critical Conditions—Commerce of Iloilo—Neighboring Towns of Panay—Cebu and Its History—Natural Features of Panay—The Island of Negros and Its Products—Siquijor—Samar, the Third of the Philippines—The Town of Catbalogan.

IN THE geographical grouping of the Philippine islands, the Visayan archipelago has a place of its own, and in it are found the second and third commercial cities of the Philippines—Iloilo and Cebu. The Visayan group lies directly north of the great island of Mindanao and south of Luzon, although it is not considered to include all of the islands directly south of the western portion of Luzon. The most important islands of the group are Panay, on which is the city of Iloilo; Guimaras, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Samar and Leyte.

Iloilo has come into familiarity in the last few months because of its importance in the Spanish-insurgent complications. After the capture of Manila by the American forces, Iloilo was the seat of Spanish government in the Philippines. It was then surrounded by the insurgents, who besieged the city until the Spanish commander surrendered to them. This situation was a considerable puzzle to the American authorities in the island. It placed the insurgent forces in possession of the second city in the archipelago, with an ample supply of arms and ammunition. They proceeded to organize a government of their own, quite distinct from that of which Aguinaldo was the head, announcing it as the Visayan republic. When American troops were hurried to Iloilo from Manila, 300 miles away, they were forbidden the privilege of landing and the situation became more than critical. This was at the time the ratification of the treaty of peace with Spain was under discussion in the United States Senate and the state of affairs at

Iloilo was brought into particular prominence. There was a general sentiment of reluctance throughout the country to see American arms turned against an insurgent body who had expelled their enemies from the second stronghold of the island, and were standing upon their rights as victors over the Spanish to demand consideration and independence. Let Mr. McCutcheon, the artist correspondent, describe his interesting journey from Manila to Iloilo, made last September, when conditions were strained but before the insurgents had taken the city:

**STRAINED
CONDITIONS
AROUND ILOILO.**

The trip between the two cities is one of the most charming experiences that a traveler could ever hope for. Some day, when the army of tourists invades the Philippines and the red guidebook and the personally conducted tour become established features, there will be pages and pages in the steamship prospectuses devoted to it. The island sea of Japan, the Thousand Islands of the St. Lawrence, the castle-capped peaks of the Rhine and the beautiful Golden Horn of Turkey will have a new rival. During the forty hours that it takes one of the small steamers of the *Compania Maritima* to make the run, the sight of land is never lost, and the scene is constantly shifting, and is always new and wonderful. The vessel passes by dozens of islands, every one of which is glorious in the richness of its foliage, the splendor of its mountain sides or the dazzling whiteness of its long stretch of sandy beach. Sometimes you are in a narrow channel, with great uplifts of brilliant green rising on either hand; then you are carried into an open sea, with only the blue hills of distant islands breaking the serene horizon or clusters of waving palm trees or some lonely coral atoll swimming on the skyline like a mirage on the desert. On one side may be the lofty purple heights of an island mountain range, standing out against the angry, ominous blackness of the storm clouds which seem to be everlastingly rioting in imposing tumult around the crests; on the other side may be gleaming strips of beach, with tangles of tropical verdure lining them; then long, easy slopes of rich, brilliant mountain sides fading away to a jagged skyline of distant blue. There are several volcanoes that are active, and may be marked by the hazy smoke that lifts lazily against the clouds.

**A JOURNEY
FROM LIZON TO
PANAY.**

Just now there are very few vessels venturing on the run, for the *Compania Maritima*, which is a Spanish concern, has only two of its vessels put under the American flag, and those that carry the Spanish flag are afraid to venture out of Manila or Iloilo for fear of the insurgent steamers that lie in hiding among the coves of the archipelago waiting to dash out and seize any floating thing that shows the red and yellow at its peak.

In company with three other correspondents, I started for Iloilo several days ago. Up to this time no American had made the trip since peace was declared, and we had a good deal of curiosity to know how we would be received. The officers of the *Butuan*, one of the Spanish steamers recently placed under our flag as an insurance against insurgent attack, looked on us with considerable suspicion, for they were all Spanish and in wholesome fear of the governor-general now at Iloilo.

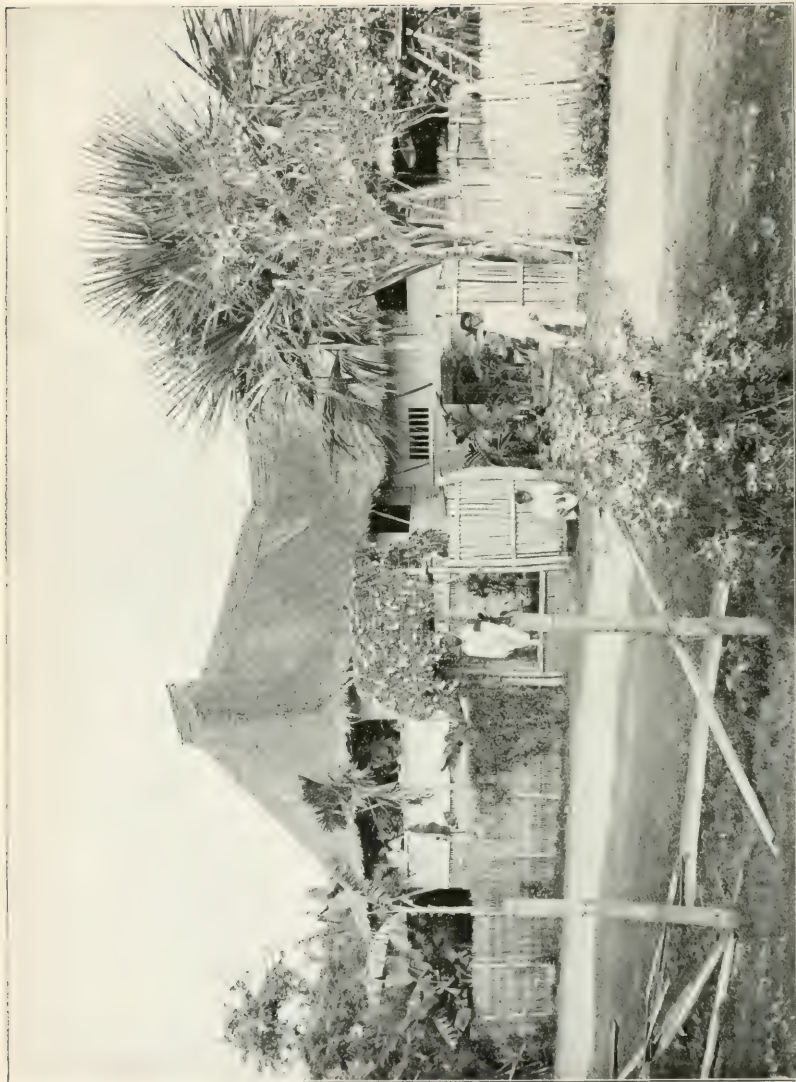
Mr. Balfour, a young Scotchman, and the manager of the Iloilo branch of the Hongkong and Shanghai bank, was the only other passenger on board who spoke English. As the vessel reached the island of Panay and steamed along down the coast he pointed out the positions held by the insurgents. When she reached Concepcion, the place of the farthest advance of the revolutionary forces, the Spaniards looked with anxious eagerness at the distant shore line and the word "insurrecto" occurred with much frequency. It was noticed, too, that with Mr. Balfour there was a disposition to conduct all references to the present operations on the island in a decided undertone.

Iloilo was reached in the middle of the afternoon. It is a typical tropical Spanish town, situated on a flat, sandy point of land which juts out into the strait. Guimaras island lies two miles to the eastward, and beyond it were the volcanic mountains of Negros island. A number of Spanish vessels were lying in the harbor and a greater number could be seen in the river. A small boat came out of the river and approached the *Butuan*. As she stopped alongside, the pilot came aboard and made preparations to take the vessel into the river, but when he found that there were Americans on board he proceeded immediately back to the town. There was a long wait, and then we realized that an obstacle had evidently reared its horrid front and



NATIVE CARRIAGE IN THE ISLAND OF LUZON.

These vehicles, called Carrumatos, are numerous in the Islands and every one who travels very much must patronize them. They are very strong, but by no means comfortable.



TYPICAL RESIDENCE IN THE OUTSKIRTS OF MANILA

The home of the Filipino in the better improved parts of the Philippine Islands is not by any means devoid of comforts. In addition to the shelter which it affords, the beauties of tropical foliage and vegetation are added to its attraction.



GRINDING SUGAR CANE, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Wherever sugar-cane is cultivated, whether in the islands of the East or West Indies, the process of preparing it for market is virtually the same. The cane must be run through heavy machines, which crush it and extract the juice out of which sugar is made, leaving a dry cane as refuse. It is this process that is familiarly known as grinding.



TYPE OF HIGH-CLASS WOMAN OF MANILA

The women of the Malay tribes are delicate of form and feature and more attractive than those of Mongolian type of whom many are found in the Philippines. The one whose portrait appears herewith has an admixture of Chinese blood.

that an objection had been advanced regarding our landing. The Spaniards on board, who were delayed in landing, regarded us with pronounced disfavor. The captain then came to us and through Mr. Balfour informed us that we would have to produce passports and official credentials from General Otis. As we had none, and, in fact, had never even thought that there might be a necessity for such things, we began to entertain the prospect of being compelled to go back to Manila without landing.

WHEN AMERICANS
WERE
UNWELCOME.

A steam launch finally came out of the river and bore down on the Butuan. Presently a Spanish officer came aboard, and a long and earnest conversation was held between him and the captain. After some minutes we were informed by Mr. Balfour that it would be necessary for us to get permission from the governor-general allowing us to land. He kindly volunteered to see the British consul and endeavor to obtain that permission. The launch then steamed back to the city with him on board, and it was noticed with some interest that armed carabineros were left on the ship, two posted at each gangway. There was a terrific wait. At nearly 6 o'clock the vessel got permission to proceed, and about 6:30 she drew up at the wharf in Iloilo river. We were then informed that we would be permitted to land and that the governor-general wished to see us at once. We were allowed to land our small luggage, and through the courtesy of the port officials it was not examined.

Our cards were at once sent to the governor and we were asked to come to him early in the morning. There were no hotels in town, but the English residents took us in with a kindness and hospitality that overwhelmed us. Early the following morning a small delegation of Americans was ushered into the presence of Governor-General Rios at the official palace. The general is a large man of imposing military presence, and was courteous in the extreme. It was explained through an interpreter that the visitors were American newspaper representatives, who were charmed with the beauty of the islands, and who wished before returning to America to make a trip among the southern islands. The general volunteered every courtesy and offered letters of introduction to various governors in Mindanao and the Sulu group, but he

explained that steamers were running very irregularly, and that he did not want us to venture into the interior, out of regard for our personal safety.

Conditions in Iloilo were critical. The inhabitants were almost terror-stricken, for the insurgents were expected to attack within two days. The town was almost defenseless. An old fort, which was ancient a hundred years ago, commanded the harbor, but it spent all its time commanding, for there were no guns mounted in it. A line of stone breastworks extended along the beaches around the town, but they were ridiculous as protection against any force excepting infantry forces, which might attack by swimming across. The river was choked with Spanish steamers that were afraid to venture out under the Spanish flag. A few troops were scattered through the town, but they were so few and badly organized that they only served to emphasize

**INSURGENTS
THREATENING
THE CITY.**

the fact that the city was practically defenseless. Big bodies of insurgents were known to be advancing from the north and west, and a titanic effort was being made to collect troops sufficient to stop their advances. There were three Spanish gunboats in the river, the Samar, Mindoro and El Cano. The two first named were small and of the same size as the Callao, but the last was much larger. Her engines were in bad order and it was common gossip that if her heaviest guns were fired the shock would shake the ship to pieces.

The day after our visit to the governor a transport arrived from Paragua having 150 troops. It was learned that General Rios was concentrating all the Spanish forces of the other islands on Panay, in the hope of preventing the fall of the city before the conclusion of the Paris conference. During the following three days other transports arrived with troops, which were at once sent off to a secret destination. The inhabitants were given to understand that the troops were being sent to relieve other garrisons, but it was found that they in reality were being dispatched to Antigue on the west coast, where the insurgents were advancing.

The English residents of Iloilo were eagerly hoping for the arrival of American warships, feeling that the presence of an American force would prevent the outbreak and massacre that otherwise would surely

result. The business interests are all hopeful that the Americans will retain the islands, for they feel that no peace can be expected as long as the Spaniards remain in Iloilo.

The three large towns of the island of Panay are Iloilo, Molo and Jaro, all of which are bunched together down at the southeastern corner. The first named is the big commercial center, where all the Europeans live, and it ranks even as great as Manila in the extent of some of its shipping. Along the river and the quay there are immense godowns filled with hemp, sugar and copra, and in time of peace there are lines of steamers and sailing schooners constantly running between the town and the great sugar and hemp districts of Negros, Mindanao, Leyte and the coasts of the island of Panay itself. Just now there are only occasional steamers plying back and forth, and these fly some flag other than the Spanish flag.

The town of Iloilo is not especially interesting, the most attractive thing about it being that it is a little cooler than Manila. The official residence of the present governor-general of the Philippines overlooks the plaza and is not particularly imposing. On the other side of the plaza are the cathedral and the big building occupied by the priests. The chief business houses are all on the Calle Real, or chief street of the town, and with only two exceptions are owned by Englishmen or Chinese. The Spanish population is usually connected with the government or army in some way, or else work for the English. There are three newspapers—the *Porvenir de Bisayas*, the *Eco de Panay* and the *Heraldo*. The *Porvenir* is the only one that is reputable and fairly trustworthy. The *Eco* is bitter in the most malignant form. On the day we arrived in Iloilo it printed an article stating that the American soldiers in Manila were bloodthirsty and were killing natives and torturing them with all kinds of barbarity. This has been the kind of news it has printed since the war began. Among many of the natives of Iloilo there is an established belief that the Americans are Indians with long hair and an abnormal thirst for blood. This impression has existed because most of the natives have never seen an American. As a natural consequence of this the members of our party were objects of a good deal of concern and curiosity. In other words, from the time

**ILOILO AND
ITS LOCAL
ATTRACTIVESS.**

we heard what Americans were supposed to be in the eyes of the natives we felt that we were a sort of "exhibit A," and our object in life was to live down the reputation of our countrymen and show what nice people Americans really are. Mr. Davis and Mr. Bass are not particularly ferocious looking, and I have some hope that history will not record me as one who loves slaughter and gloats over the massacre of innocents. These personal confessions may be excused as having a definite bearing on the story. Therefore, in the history of the world there were probably never before three individuals who so completely embodied all the essentials of peacefulness, good behavior and high and lofty conduct as we did while on exhibition during our mission of enlightenment.

There are two banks in Iloilo, the Hongkong and Shanghai bank and the Banco Filipina Espanol. The former is of course a branch of the great oriental bank of the same name and is almost as strong as the Bank of England. It is a silver bank, however, all its operations being conducted on that basis. Mr. C. H. Balfour, the manager, is a first cousin of Robert Louis Stevenson and was once stationed in New York city for six months in the interests of the bank.

Mr. Balfour had just brought down from Manila 150,000 Mexican dollars on the Buluan. The Spanish authorities examined this shipment very closely. For several years there has been a law prohibiting the circulation of Mexican dollars of a later date than 1877, and as among the present shipment were some of a later date for awhile there was great danger that the shipment would be confiscated by the authorities. After some discussion, supported by the high standing of Mr. Balfour with the Spaniards, the shipment was released and sent back to Manila.

There is an English club with a membership of about twenty-five, four or five of whom are Germans, six or eight English and the rest Scotch. Nearly all the Britons in Iloilo happen to be Scotch. Only one cafe of any pretensions could be found, and that is purely a Spanish cafe, where dashing Castilian officers sit ten or twelve hours a day telling how Sagasta ought to have run things.

About five miles out from Iloilo is Jaro, but it isn't pronounced that way. It sounds as if it were spelled Harrow, and for the first day

or two I thought people were talking about the English preparatory school. The road out is beautiful with tropical splendor, but the bridge is broken down and one has a good walk in the blazing sunshine before one reaches Jaro. And after a short residence in Iloilo a person acquires a wholesome fear of the midday sun. The local foreign residents were earnest in their warnings against exposure to the sun, and about the first thing that is done when down there is to buy a large sun hat which closely resembles a Hindu pagoda.

**JARO AND ITS
THURSDAY
MARKET-PLACE.**

There was the regular Thursday market on in Jaro when we reached the town. A district five or six acres in extent was laid out in irregular lanes of small shelter houses and several hundred natives were thronging up and down these lanes, bargaining and smoking tremendous "cigarros." The heat was intense, but in spite of the discomfort of it the experience was one of the most enjoyable and wonderful we had ever been through. Certain sections were devoted entirely to cloth goods, others to hemp ready to be woven into the cloth, others to fish markets, milk, food supplies, baskets, tobacco and dozens of other native commodities. The people were extremely picturesque, and many of the young girls were very beautiful. It was strange to see how general it was for the women to smoke and to see to what gigantic cigars their fancy ran. The cigars were manufactured as occasion demanded, a roll of tobacco being wound about with a string, and the result was that the extemporized cigar looked like a long, ragged torch.

The market lasted all during the forenoon and then the throng began to dwindle away. The long rows of bull carts and caromatas scattered off through the country, and at 1 o'clock the scene of our financial conquests was quiet and sleepy and the thatched palm roofs of the nipa shelters slumbered in the deadly heat of the midday sun.

Jaro is where the natives live. It has a population of about 10,000, and there are no Europeans except the Spanish soldiers occupying it.

Molo—which, strange as it may seem, is pronounced as it is spelled—lies off from Iloilo in another direction. This is where the mestizos, or half-castes, live. Chinese who have married Indian girls make Molo their home. It is, like Jaro, a large settlement, and a great number of wealthy Chinese have built it up to quite a respectable and substantial

appearance. There are a number of factories there where different native fabrics are woven, but the Philippine idea of a factory is not ours. Three or four looms are in a residence, and the women members of the household go out and weave a piece of cloth whenever the mood possesses them. A purchaser desiring a cloth of a particular color can have it made according to his own design. It takes some time, because in this manana land the natives never believe in doing anything to-morrow that can be put off until day after to-morrow.

Cebu is now the third commercial city of the Philippines and the capital of the island bearing the same name. A line of steamers runs from Iloilo to Cebu in about twenty hours, while a more pretentious line runs from Manila to Cebu direct. For many years this city ranked next to Manila in commercial importance, but Iloilo finally passed it in the race and now stands second. However, until the recent insurrection disturbed all commerce and agriculture, it was still the shipping center for much of the hemp raised in the Visayan islands. The population is about 10,000 and the foreign community consists only of agencies of two English, one German and three Spanish business houses. One man holds all the foreign consulates and the business houses represent all the insurance companies and banks as well.

As the site of the first Spanish settlement in the Philippines Cebu is a place of some historic interest. From 1565 to 1571 it was the capital of a colony. Up to 1759 it continued to have a municipal government, which was then abolished because there was but one Spaniard in the place capable of being a city councilor, while the mayor had recently been turned out of office for attempting to extort money from a Chinaman by putting his head in the stocks. The municipal government was not restored until 1890.

The islands of the Visayan group are more than varied in their characteristics of soil, climate and products. They are near enough one another that navigation for small boats is easy and frequent, even though some of the channels between the islands are rough. Guimaras, for instance, which lies opposite Iloilo across a channel but six miles in width, is extremely healthful. It is rough and hilly, but without high mountains. The whole island is covered with a cap of

limestone and the soil is apparently poor. Near the sea, coconut palms are abundant, and the nuts, with a mild intoxicant made from the sap of the blossom-stalks, are the principal products of the little island. The island of Panay itself, one of the larger of the archipelago, has been almost denuded of the trees which once covered it and in the vicinity of its principal city one finds only swamps, cultivated ground, and immense cogonales. The savage tribes have disappeared with the forest, either yielding to civilization or becoming extinct, but in the high mountains to the northwest, which are little explored, some woodland and some wild men may yet be found.

**FACTS ABOUT
THE ISLAND
OF PANAY.**

There have been no valuable mineral deposits discovered in Panay. The soil is fairly fertile over large areas and in some regions is very rich. There are extensive sugar plantations in the Concepcion district. Near Capiz large quantities of alcohol are made from the juice of the nipa palm. The blossom-stalk is cut off and the flowing sap caught, placed in large receptacles to ferment and finally distilled. The process is inexpensive and the product of excellent quality.

Although Cebu is the third city of commercial importance in the islands, there are other native cities of larger population which are important market towns for agricultural products. Capiz, for instance, on the northeast coast of Panay, has a population of more than 25,000, with a Spanish colony of nearly 100.

The next neighbor island to the southeastward of Panay is Negros, the principal towns of which are Dumaguete, Bais and Bacalod. Negros is probably the richest island of its size in the archipelago and the fertile lowlands along the coast are extensively cultivated, although much good land still lies idle. Fine tobacco is grown in the Escalante region, but sugar is the most important as a crop. Although the most primitive methods of cultivating the cane and extracting the juice are commonly employed, there are a number of fine estates on which comparatively modern machinery is used.

**THE RICHEST
ISLAND OF THE
PHILIPPINES.**

The most southerly island of the Visayan group, except the southern extremity of Negros itself, is Siquijor, which lies some fifteen miles to the southeast of Dumaguete. One town is named the same as the

name of the island and another is called San Antonio, the former on the seashore and the latter on the highest ground in the hills. Like most of the limestone islands of the Philippines, Siquijor is quite free from malaria. Inasmuch as it produces a large quantity of excellent food products and the people are notable in the Philippines for their industry, it is a somewhat desirable place for a short visit.

The island of Cebu lies directly east of Negros. The city, which is the capital of the island, has been a bishop's see, as well as the residence of the governor and a general of brigade commanding the governors of all the Visayan islands. Cebu has no high mountains, but the surface of its interior is broken by steep and rugged hills. The island has been almost denuded of trees, and large areas are grown up in cogonales. The soil, which is often shallow, lies over limestone rocks. There is very little malaria, and the island is, on the whole, exceptionally healthful. There are no wild tribes in Cebu. Brigands infest some districts, but as a rule the people are orderly and noted for their amiability and hospitality.

Samar, another of the larger Visayans and, in fact, the third island in size of all the Philippines, has for its capital a town called

**SAMAR, THE
THIRD ISLAND
IN SIZE.**

Catbalogan. It is a small, clean town lying on the north shore of a fine bay on the west coast. Its main business is the buying, curing and baling of hemp.

There are several fairly good shops in the place, but it is difficult to obtain food there, as fruit, poultry and eggs are scarce and dear. Fish is very abundant, however, and milk can be obtained daily—a rare luxury in the Philippines. There is a fine beach in front of the town where the surf bathing is delightful. Hemp is the chief product of the island and is raised in considerable quantities. There is also an immense amount of valuable timber still standing. The island is without high mountains, but there are several rivers of some importance. The climate is healthful.

These are the islands included in the Visayan republic, organized with Iloilo as a capital, when the Spanish commander there surrendered his troops to an insurgent force.



TRANSPORTATION IN ALBAY, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

Even within the adjacent islands of the East Indian groups, conditions and manners of life vary materially, as well as the races of the natives themselves. The peculiar carts with thatched roofs, illustrated in the accompanying picture, are a special type seldom found except in this particular locality.



VOLCANO IN ALBAY, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

This beautiful mountain is visible to the traveler for a long distance, and from the great height of its summit a beautiful tropical scene spreads before the eye. Like many other mountains reared by volcanic action, this one takes the form of an almost perfect cone, with a remarkable resemblance to two other famous volcanic mountains, Fujiyama in Japan and Mount Egmont, in the north island of New Zealand.

CHAPTER XI.

PALAWAN AND THE ADJACENT ISLANDS.

The Sulu Sea and Its Boundaries—The Journey to Palawan—The Town of Puerto Princesa—A Gift from the Sultan of Borneo—Wars with the Moros—Efforts to Induce Immigration Into Palawan—Establishment of a Penal Settlement—Manners of Life in Palawan—Transported Convicts for Servants—The Savage Native Peoples—Interesting Facts About the Tagbanuas—Products of the Island—A Discouraging Effort to Develop Agriculture.

FAR to the southward of Luzon lies the Sulu sea, forming a great, diamond-shaped body of water, of which the angles virtually coincide with the points of the compass. The southwestern side of the figure is bounded by British North Borneo; the southeastern by the Sulu archipelago, where the Moros have their stronghold, and by the island of Mindanao, second in size of the Philippines; the northeast by Negros, Panay and Mindoro; and the northwestern by the island of Palawan and its neighbors.

This latter island, the fifth in size of all the Philippines, with the smaller ones adjoining it to the north and south, forms one of the greater divisions of the whole archipelago, known by the Spaniards under the name of *Islas Adjacentes*. Palawan is the native name for the island and the one which is considered geographically correct, although the Spaniards long have dubbed it *Paragua*. The other islands properly included in the same general division are Busuanga, Calamianes, Culion, Nengalao, Linapacan, Cuyo and Dumaran in the northeast, and Balabac in the southwest.

The traveler for the *Islas Adjacentes* sails from Manila on one of the inter-island steamboats which carry the mail, passengers and freight throughout the archipelago. The first stop in the journey usually is at the Calamianes islands. The same name is applied to one

of the provinces, which includes the numerous islands lying between Palawan, Mindoro and Panay. Cuyo is the capital of the same province and the second port of the journey. Here, strangely enough, the population is composed almost altogether of women, who consequently monopolize all the trade. They come off to the passenger steamers with fruit, provisions and curios and a man is seldom seen by the traveler. It is so difficult to gain a livelihood in this island that the boys and young men make their escape to more favorable islands as soon as they are big enough to shift for themselves, and the result is that ninety per cent of the population are women.

Palawan is one of the less known and less settled islands of the Philippine archipelago, of which, except for some little neighbors to the southward, it is the westernmost. The island is nearly 300 miles in length, its breadth ranging from six to thirty-five miles, with an average of twenty miles. The capital is Puerto Princesa, which is situated on the eastern side about midway between the northern and southern extremities. The town is a fairly prosperous place, situated on a good-sized bay, which affords safe anchorage. There is a lighthouse which marks the entrance to the excellent harbor and a little slip for repairing vessels. Two Spanish gunboats have made headquarters there and as a result the place has been known as a naval station.

The island of Palawan formerly belonged to the sultan of Borneo. Early in the eighteenth century the Spaniards began to settle its northern end, and in order to protect them from the warlike Moros who lived in its southern third, a garrison was established. After being maintained for a few years, it was left without the necessary supplies and was finally abandoned after many of the troops had perished miserably of hunger and want. A few years later the sultan gave the island to the Spanish. Troops were sent under a captain to take formal possession. All of them died ultimately, some from eating rotten food and others in war with the Moros. Still later a third garrison was established at Tay Tay. At first a little settlement grew up around it, which ultimately shared the fate of its predecessor.

After centuries of effort to settle the island and protect the set-

**HOW TO REACH
PALAWAN
FROM MANILA.**

**A GIFT FROM
THE SULTAN
OF BORNEO.**

tlers, a renewed attempt was made on the part of the Spanish authorities. In 1885 it was provided by royal order that military posts should be established in Palawan for the protection of prospective settlers. All Spanish subjects who should migrate from Spain, as well as all civilized natives who should settle in these islands were promised exemption from the payment of tribute for six years. They were also offered free transportation to their destination and were provided with seed and implements.

As this offer failed to have the desired effect, it was later provided that the governors of neighboring provinces should promote the voluntary migration of native families by still more generous offers. Twenty-five families were to be sent from each of the neighboring provinces annually. All debts owed the government by these families were to be canceled. They were to receive free transportation for themselves and their cattle, to be given seven acres of land each, and practically supported during the first six months after their arrival. The same royal order provided for the building of highways and the opening of free ports, but nothing came of it all. A few little military outposts were established in Palawan, but no highways were built, no free ports opened, nor did any voluntary immigrants arrive. Either it was omitted to provide funds for carrying out the tempting plans of settlement, or if provided the money was turned into channels altogether different from what had been intended.

**EFFORTS TO
COLONIZE
THE ISLAND.**

When the effort to stimulate voluntary immigration into Palawan failed, the Spanish continued to foster their policy of providing settlers by force. Puerto Princesa for a long time has been a penal settlement. From other parts of the colony convicts are sent to serve their term in the island. As in most other penal settlements, when their sentences expire they have no money to pay for a passage back to their homes, so they make the best of it by remaining as colonists. While they are serving their terms in Puerto Princesa, they are obliged to work on government enterprises of various sorts. Formerly a sugar plantation was maintained to furnish them employment, and when that was abandoned they were set to clearing timber land near the city.

As is to be expected, the convicts have suffered the same abuses

that have been the curse of other penal settlements, aggravated perhaps by the fact that in this case the administration was Spanish. However, even here in the Philippines, there are no sufferings to relate more dreadful than those which cursed the hapless convicts of the British penal colonies in Australasia. The convicts at Puerto Princesa suffer a very high death rate, amounting sometimes to about twenty-five per cent yearly, as a result of their hard labor, poor accommodation, insufficient food and ill treatment.

Manners of life in Palawan, even in the capital of the island, are essentially primitive. The servants are all convicts, who can be hired from the government, or by a special concession to
CONVICTS "trusties," men who have a certain degree of liberty
THE ONLY may be obtained. Their houses are poor, furniture
SERVANTS. scanty, and the markets provide an exceedingly limited bill of fare, consisting chiefly of rice and fish. The water supply is contaminated by surface drainage, so that rain-water preserved in large tanks must be employed. A large part of the death rate of the convicts must be charged against the water provided for them.

The savage native people of Palawan include various tribes, some of them quite distinct from those found in the other islands of the archipelago. In the southern part Moros are found, in the northern mountain region Battaks, and in the central portion and along the northern coast Tagbanuas. The latter are commonly believed to be a half-breed race, a mixture of the Negritos and some Malay tribe. They are quite dark and their hair is inclined to be curly. Under the advice and direction of a Spanish engineer who was constructing a highway across the island, they have established a village called Tagbarus, in which they show a surprising capacity for civilization. They have actually organized a form of local government under his advice and started small plantations of rice, bananas and cocoanut.

The Tagbanuas of the remoter parts of the island are even more interesting than their partially civilized brethren. They are friendly to strangers and by no means as suspicious as most savage tribes. Their village houses are built of palm and bamboo of quite small size and are built high in the air, on stilts of bamboo, instead of being within six or eight feet of the ground. They have their own simple alphabet,

which is in common use, using fresh joints of bamboo in place of paper for their writings. The letters are scratched on the smooth surface in vertical columns. In former times the Tagbanuas were governed by a ruler who held office for life. If he proved a good chief his eldest son was allowed to succeed him; if not, a new one was chosen by the will of the people. At present, however, there is no ruler for the whole tribe. The affairs of each community are administered by a council of old men who render justice according to native conditions and their own ideas. If a person is charged with a serious crime, accused and accuser are conducted by the old men to the bank of some deep pool, and there in the presence of relatives and friends the two dive beneath the water at the same instant. The one who remains under the longer is held to have spoken the truth.

**CIVILIZATION
OF THE
TAGBANUAS.**

It is in this island of Palawan that the most valuable deposits of dammar are found. Dammar is a vegetable gum which exudes from a large tree and has considerable value in commerce for various uses. It is abundant in Mindanao as well as Palawan. In some places there are extensive deposits which have run into the earth in bygone years or have been gradually covered with accumulating leaf mold. These are known as dammar "mines" and will be the source of considerable income and profit to some one who may attempt a systematic working of the deposits, something that has never yet been done. The dammar deposits of Palawan are near the coast and the yearly exports from the archipelago vary from 200 to 500 tons, in spite of the crudity of the methods employed in gathering it.

Palawan was the scene of one of the numerous melancholy failures which have resulted from the attempt to develop the valuable latent resources of the Philippines. A former governor who tried unsuccessfully to interest his countrymen in the remarkable possibilities of that island, finally resigned his official position and secured a concession of 30,000 acres of land. His franchise permitted him to work mines, cut timber and cultivate the soil. At once he found it necessary to employ Chinese labor to clear away the forest, whereupon his government refused him permission to employ aliens. Next his countrymen ac-

**HOW SPAIN
DISCOURAGED
INDUSTRY.**

cused him of trying to interest the foreigners in his concession, suggesting that he meant eventually to declare Palawan independent territory. The result was that such additional restrictions were imposed upon him that his concession became absolutely worthless. An experiment station which he established furnished ample proof of the wonderful fertility of the soil and the possibilities of his concession if he had been treated with a liberal spirit. Under American dominance, with a change in this condition, these opportunities will be utilized to the undoubted profit of some one.

Any estimate of the natural resources of the Philippine islands and the possibility of profit to energetic immigrants must be incomplete because of just such facts as the foregoing. The Spanish policy has been a handicap altogether insurmountable. The honest man could not face the corruption that surrounded him and compete with it. The dishonest man, however willing he might be to bribe and use improper influences, would find the demands upon him growing more and more as his ability to pay more increased, so that in the end there would be little left for him.

Americans always have been a pioneering people, accustomed to endure hardships without complaint and resourceful enough to create comfort for themselves even in the wilderness. It is this fact that justifies the belief that the development of the remarkable latent resources and varied possibilities of profit in the Philippines will be rapid and constant as soon as peace settles down upon the islands and a regime of law and order, with assurance of protection to life and property, is established.

CHAPTER XII.

MINDANAO, ITS RESOURCES AND CONDITIONS.

The Least Known of the Philippines—Explorations by Jesuit Missionaries—Extent of Spanish Authority—General Weyler's Effort to Subdue the Moros—Fatal Results of His Expedition—Failure Announced as Victory—Undeveloped Agricultural and Mineral Resources of the Island—Lakes and River Systems—Forests and Their Products—Mountain Chains and Volcanoes—The Port of Zamboanga and Its Possibilities for Ocean Commerce—Native Villages and Their Characteristics—The Native House of the Filipino—How the Native Villages Have Been Governed Under Spanish Rule—The "Gobernadorcillo" and His Important Functions—The Rewards of His Office.

MINDANAO, the largest island of the Philippine archipelago except Luzon, and the most southerly except the Sulu group, has been the least explored by the Spanish and the slowest to subjugate, in spite of the great loss of life and effort that have been expended in the attempt. The island has an area of 37,500 square miles. Its savage peoples, high mountains and dense forests have made exploration difficult and until within a short time little has been known of its interior. Of late years the priests of the Jesuit missions have pushed their explorations with great courage and energy until they have gathered data for a fairly complete and accurate map.

These mission explorers recognize twenty-four distinct tribes of people, of whom seventeen are pagan, six Mohammedan Moros, and the other Christian Visayans, who have come in from the northern islands and settled at various points, especially along the north coast. Most of the wild tribes are of Malayan origin, but there still remain in Mindanao a considerable number of the little black Negritos, with whom some of the Malay tribes have intermarried. The warlike Moros are especially dreaded. They are found along the southern and southwestern coasts and near the large rivers and inland lakes.

**TRIBES NOW
INHABITING
MINDANAO.**

Although the island is nominally divided into provinces, Spanish authority has been effective, as a matter of fact, only in narrow and more or less isolated strips along the sea and near a few of the rivers which afford the only means of communication with the interior.

Professor Worcester relates an interesting circumstance connected with Spanish control in the islands, which introduces as its chief actor one whose name has been very familiar to Americans. He says:

"In Mindanao there are no roads and the futility of attempting to move troops inland was beautifully demonstrated by General Weyler during our second visit. For some reason best known to himself, he saw fit to send in an expedition against the Moros. It was very broadly hinted by his countrymen that he had an itching for the rank of marshal and hoped to win it. Whatever the cause, all the available forces in the archipelago were concentrated and marched into the Mindanao forest. An officer who accompanied the expedition told me that the enemy simply ran away and they were never able to overtake them, while eighty per cent of their own men were disabled by starvation and fever. Although the starvation might have been avoided, it is tolerably certain that the fever was inevitable. The mortality was certainly terrible. We saw the wreck of the expedition come back,

**A TYPICAL
WEYLER
UNDERTAKING.**

and in spite of the fact that the priests from all the towns near Zamboanga were called in, they could not shrive the soldiers as fast as they died. Sick men were sent away by the ship load. Meanwhile Weyler was directing operations from a very safe distance, spending much of his time on a dispatch boat. We learned later that several glorious victories were announced at Manila and were celebrated with processions, fireworks and great rejoicings."

The natural characteristics of Mindanao are such as to make it interesting alike to the traveler and the possible settler. Its resources are, perhaps, less developed than those of any other of the larger islands of the archipelago. The soil, especially in the river and lake regions, is exceedingly fertile and repays abundantly the labor expended upon it. Valuable mineral wealth is known to exist, although few details are recorded. Gold is found in paying quantities at a number of points, among others Misamis and Surigao, where the natives



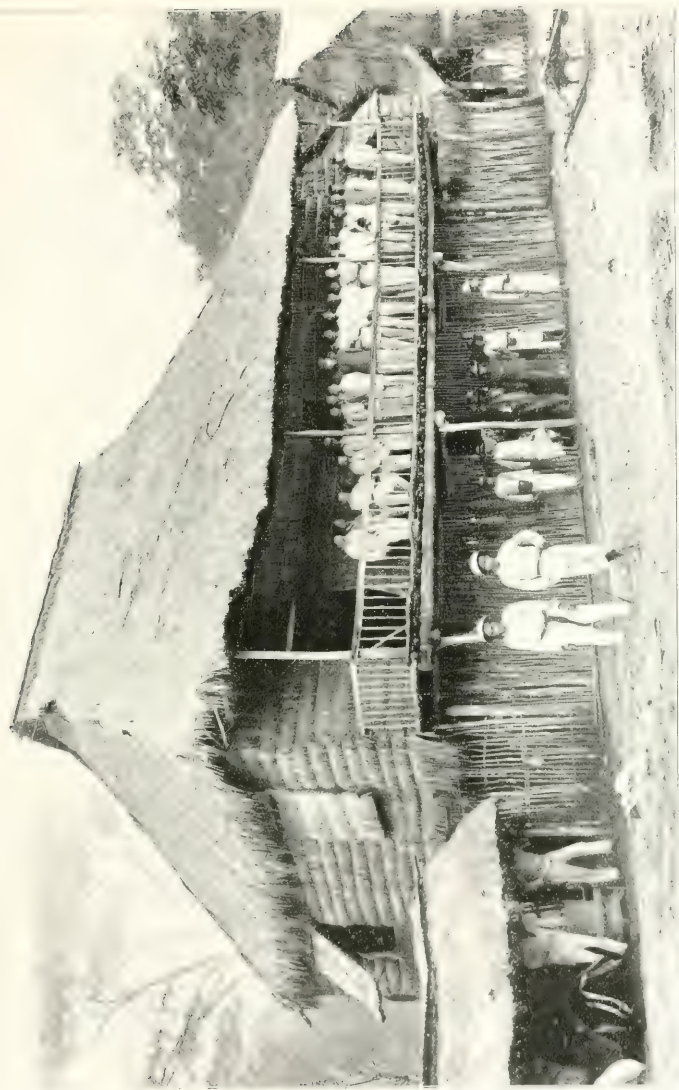
A NATIVE PADRE OF THE PHILIPPINES

The Filipinos have no quarrel with the Catholic Church nor with the priests of their own race. Their animosity is directed against the Spanish priests, whom they charge with immorality, vicious habits and an overwhelming greed for the priestly fees.



MESTIZO CHILDREN IN MANILA

Technically the word Mestizo has a narrower significance, but in practice in the Philippines it is applied to any half-caste person. These of the picture are a mixture of Chinese and Indian. Spanish and Filipino half-castes form a large element in the population.



HOME OF GENERAL EMILIO AGUINALDO

The photograph was taken during the outbreak of his insurrection against the Spanish, in the village of
 Baguio, Luzon, Philippines. It is a typical of the better class of native houses throughout the civilized parts of the islands.



GENERAL PILAR AND STAFF OF THE INSURGENT ARMY

General Pilar has been one of the most active officers among the Filipinos and is noted as a "fire-eater". It was he who most strongly opposed the evacuation of Manila in response to the American demands, arguing that then was the time to begin fighting. He is but twenty-two years of age.

have worked the diggings profitably by their crude methods for many years. Misamis is a port on the north shore of the island in Iligan bay, while Surigao is at the northeastern extremity of the island.

The name of Mindanao signifies "man of the lake," the natives explaining that the name was given because the island is so well watered. Its river and lake systems are even more important than those of Luzon. The largest river, the Butuan, which rises near the southeastern extremity of the island, runs north through a great valley of remarkable fertility, traversing the whole island and flowing into the sea that bounds the north shore.

The Rio Grande, on the other hand, rises near the north coast and flows south and west, while there are other rivers of lesser importance. Both of the rivers named have their sources and tributaries in large lakes and there are many others which find an exit to the sea by smaller streams.

**NATURAL
RESOURCES OF
THE ISLAND.**

The forests of the islands are of great extent, the splendid trees including many of great commercial value. Beside the valuable products of the forest which Mindanao has in common with most of the other islands, gutta percha is abundant in certain localities.

The scenery of Mindanao is notably fine. There are several mountain chains separating the river valleys and the peaks include a number of active volcanoes. The most famous of these is Mount Apo near the port of Devao on the south coast. The summit of this volcano rises to a height of nearly 9,000 feet. Extinct volcanoes are numerous.

The oldest of the Spanish settlements in the island is the important town of Zamboanga, which is the capital of a province bearing the same name. This port is situated at the extreme southwestern point of the island and consequently nearest the Sulu archipelago and the domain of the Moros. It was taken and fortified in the early days as a place of operation against the Mohammedans and still has an old stone fort to which the inhabitants might retreat if attacked.

The town is large and clean, with a pier extending into moderately deep water, although vessels of large size have to lie in the outer harbor. The steamers sailing from the Australian ports of Queensland for Hongkong and Yokohama, pass between Mindanao and Borneo on their direct course, not many miles from Zamboanga. In former times

these steamers made port at this city as a regular stopping point on their journey, but the excessive harbor fees and aggravating cus-

**A FUTURE PORT
OF SOME
IMPORTANCE.**

toms restrictions long ago caused them to shun it. This is one of the more notable lanes of passenger and freight traffic between Australia and Asia. Under an American regime Zamboanga no doubt would become a port of call, and a welcome one, for these same vessels, and it would be an important city in the traffic of the archipelago.

This part of the island of Mindanao has been quite thoroughly under Spanish control and in the neighborhood of Zamboanga are villages of decent civilized natives, resting content under the alien authority. Such villages are picturesque and interesting to the traveler, although they offer no accommodations for one who is exacting. Every such village has a church, which is the most pretentious edifice in the place, a house for the priest, and an institution of the islands known as the tribunal. This is a sort of town-hall where the head men of the village meet to transact business. It contains a pair of stocks or some other contrivance for the detention of prisoners. When troops are quartered there, the place is used as a barracks, and most important of all to the stranger, any traveler who chooses to do so has a right to put up there. Hanging on the wall is ordinarily to be found a list of the proper local prices for rice, fowl, eggs, meat and other articles of food, as well as for horse hire, buffalo hire, carriers, etc. The object of this list is to protect strangers from extortion.

Here in the neighborhood of Zamboanga is an excellent place to observe the manners of life of the civilized natives and the relationship they have held to the Spanish authorities of the Philippines. The native houses there are like those of the poorer civilized natives throughout the archipelago.

The typical Philippine house rests on four or more heavy timbers, which are firmly set in the ground, and its floor is raised from five to ten feet in the air. There is not a nail or a peg in the

**HOW THE
NATIVE HOUSES
ARE CONSTRUCTED.**

whole structure. The frame is of bamboo, tied together with rattan. The sides and roof are usually of nipa palm, although the former may be made by splitting green bamboos, pounding the halves flat, and then weaving

them together, while if nipa is very scarce, the roof may be thatched with the long grass called cogon. The floor usually is made of bamboo strips with their convex sides up. They are tied firmly in place in such a way that wide cracks are left between. The windows are provided with swinging shades which can be propped open during the day. One has to climb a ladder to enter the house. Often there is but one room for cooking, eating and sleeping. The cooking is done over an open fire built on a heap of earth in one corner. In the better dwellings there is a place partitioned off for cooking, usually just at the head of the ladder, while the body of the house is divided into two or more rooms.

Native houses of this sort have much to recommend them. If shaken down by an earthquake, or blown over by a typhoon, no one gets hurt, for the materials used are too light to do harm when they fall. The ventilation is perfect and the air keeps much cooler than in a tightly closed building. Wealthy natives sometimes build houses of boards with galvanized iron roofs and limestone foundations, but they are very much more expensive and decidedly less comfortable than the humbler dwellings.

The system of government of the native villages throughout Mindanao, and as well in the other islands of the archipelago where Spanish rule has extended, is of considerable interest. It will be of greater interest to watch the development of American influence and authority in the islands and to see to what extent the Spanish system is followed.

A *gobernadorcillo*, literally "little governor," is to be found in every Philippine town or village and he is a very important personage. He is always a native or a half-caste and is the local representative of the governor of his province, from whom he receives instruction and to whom he sends reports. His headquarters are at the tribunal.

**SYSTEM OF
NATIVE VILLAGE
GOVERNMENT.**

He is addressed as *capitan* during his term of office, and after his successor has been chosen is known as a *capitan pasado*.

He settles all local questions except those which assume a serious legal aspect and therefore properly belong to the justice of the peace; but his most important duty is to see that the taxes of his town are col-

lected, and to turn them over to the administrator of the province. He is personally responsible for these taxes, and must obtain them from his "cabezas" or make good the deficit. He is obliged to aid the guardia civil in the capture of criminals, and to assist the parish friar in promoting the interests of the church, frequently, also, in advancing his private ends. Finally, he is at the beck and call of all the officials who visit his town. He often has to entertain them at his own expense, and not infrequently finds it advisable to make them presents. He is liable at any time to be called to the capital of the province, but is given no compensation for the cost of traveling or the loss of time. If he does not speak Spanish, he must employ a clerk (*directorcillo*).

There is a great deal of writing to be done at the tribunal, and, as the allowance for clerk-hire is usually utterly insufficient, the gobernadorcillo must make up the difference. In return for all this he is allowed a salary of two dollars per month, and is permitted to carry a cane! If he does not "squeeze" his fellow-townsmen or steal public funds he is apt to come out badly behind.

While the office is nominally filled by election every two years, the elective system is of such a nature that service can readily be made compulsory. Wealthy men are chosen for the place, if any such can be found, and are often kept in office for years, sorely against their will. Yet there is nothing quite so dear to the heart of the average Philippine native as a little authority over his fellows, and in spite of the numerous drawbacks, the position is sometimes earnestly sought.

The families of every town are divided into groups of from forty to sixty, each under a "*cabeza de Barangay*," who is responsible for their taxes. If he cannot get them from the people he must pay them out of his own pocket. Excuses are useless. For obvious reasons, men of means are chosen for this position, and, though nominally elected every two years, they are actually kept in office as long as they have anything to lose, and sometimes longer.

**TAXATION AND
ITS PECULIAR
FEATURES.**

The gobernadorcillo has a "ministry," consisting of the first and second *tenientes* (lieutenants), who take his place in his absence; other *tenientes* having charge of outlying districts; and chiefs of police, plantations and cattle.

At the tribunal is maintained a small force of *cuadrilleros*, who perform police duty, and are supposed to defend the town against bandits and the like.

A man who has been elected *teniente* or *gobernadorcillo*, or who has served ten years as a *cabeza de Barangay*, is numbered among the "headmen" of the place.

The headmen meet at the tribunal from time to time, and discuss public affairs with great gravity. They assemble every Sunday morning, and, headed by the *gobernadorcillo*, and frequently also by a band playing very lively airs, they march to the convento and escort the friar to the church, where they all attend mass.

The state dress of the headmen is quite picturesque. Their white shirts dangle outside of their pantaloons after the Philippine fashion and over them they wear tight-fitting jackets without tails, which reach barely to their waists. When the jacket is buttoned, it causes the shirt to stand out in a frill, producing a most grotesque effect.

A traveler, in speaking about the villagers of Ayala, in Mindanao, says: "We were rather touched by their never-failing hospitality. The Philippine native seems always ready to kill his last fowl for a stranger or share with him his last pot of rice. When we stopped at a hut and asked for a drink, its inmates were loth to offer us water in the cocoanut-shell cups which served their own purpose and hunted up and washed old tumblers or even sent to some neighbors to borrow them. With a glass of water they always gave us a lump of coarse brown sugar to stimulate thirst, an entirely unnecessary precaution."

**HOSPITALITY
OF THE
FILIPINOS.**

CHAPTER XIII.

THE SULU ARCHIPELAGO.

Geography of This Island Group—Source of the Sulu Mohammedans—Civil Warfare in the Archipelago—Two Centuries of Piracy—Unavailing Spanish Efforts to Control the Sulus—Zamboanga Fortified—Spanish Garrisons in the Islands—Authority of the Sultan of Sulu—General Arolas and His Excellent Record as Governor—Spanish Governor Murdered by the Sultan—The Island of Tawi Tawi—Condition of the Slave Trade—A Problem for the United States to Solve.

GEOGRAPHICALLY the Sulu archipelago of the Philippines is a group of 150 islands, the chain extending from southwest to northeast between Borneo and Mindanao. The last Spanish report names 150 islands, of which ninety-five are inhabited, besides several hundred islets and rocks. On one side of the chain is the Sulu sea and on the other side the Celebes sea. This chain is likely to play a very prominent part in the annals of American history in the Philippines if the necessity rises for us to attempt their political subjugation and pacification.

The history of the Sulus is the history of the Moros, for there is their stronghold. After the Spanish discovery of the Philippines, as the invaders endeavored to extend their sovereignty southwestward from Mindanao, they found as an obstacle in their way the settlements of Sulus. Strangely enough, however, there was in the early days of Philippine history a short alliance between the opposing forces, on which is still based the claim of Spanish sovereignty over the Sulus.

The Mohammedans reached this chain of islands as a result of civil warfare in Borneo. Two sultans who were brothers were in conflict in that great island, and the unsuccessful one, with his followers, fled across the channel into the Sulu islands. It was another exodus of the same sort from Borneo that brought the Mohammedan element into Palawan and the adjacent islands. This defeated sovereign,

establishing his capital at the town of Sulu, or Jolo, as the Spanish name it, began a Mohammedan civilization which rapidly became a strong power in that part of the world. A cousin of this sultan settled on Basilan, which is the nearest to Mindanao of the Sulu chain, and soon became its sole ruler. He was loyal to the sultan at first, but in time plotted against him and attacked the capital city unsuccessfully. After many fights on land and sea he retired again to his own possessions in Basilan.

**MORO PLOTS
AND
COUNTERPLOTS.**

Then the sultan himself went to Manila and pledged his vassalage to the Spanish on condition that they would help him subjugate his rebellious cousin. The promise was promptly made, but the squadron which was equipped under the agreement was delayed several months beyond the promised time before it sailed southward. In the meantime the sultan, tired of waiting, attacked the rebels and routed them completely, although he was himself killed in the battle. The Spaniards in due season arrived at Sulu, and, not finding the sultan, turned and went back to Manila. They preserved the treaty with great care and upon this has been based the Spanish claim of sovereignty over the Sulu sultanate.

The next ruler, however, Adasaolan, extended his influence far and wide. He developed the archipelago, made alliances with the Mohammedan king of Mindanao and the chief of northern Borneo, and compelled all his subjects and tributaries to adopt the Koran at the point of the sword. He built the first mosque in the city of Sulu and received honors and titles all the way from Turkey, from the head of the Mohammedan church, the Sublime Porte, in recognition of his services to the faith. It would seem that his claim of sovereignty and his possession of the territory gave him a better title to the islands than the treaty of Manila gave to the Spanish. Nevertheless, in 1595 the Spaniards sent an expedition to take possession of their property and incidentally to spread the gospel among the heathen. Nearly all their officers were killed, half the men incapacitated by sickness and wounds, while the war-ship which carried the expedition was so shattered that it was able to get only as far as Cebu on the return journey.

**SPANISH
DEFEATED BY
MOROS.**

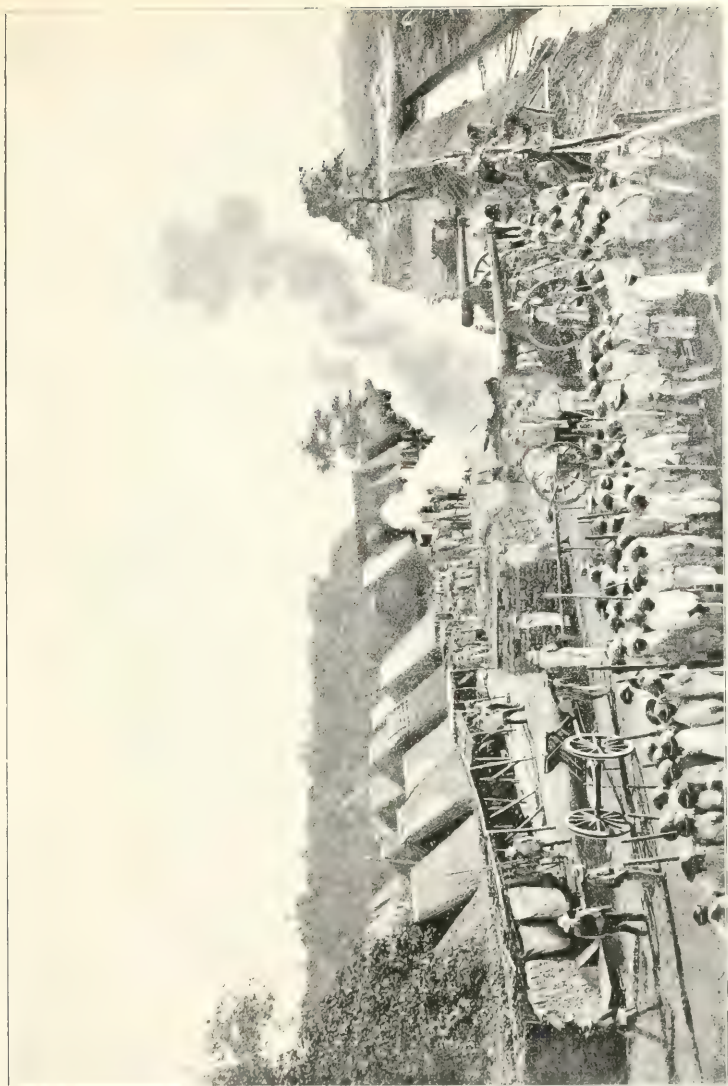
From this time on, the Sulu pirates carried their daring incursions throughout the waters of the archipelago, hardly interrupted until English men-of-war suppressed the evil in the present century. Their pirate craft frequently sailed into the neighborhood of the city of Manila and actually captured trading vessels within sight of the peninsula of Cavite. At one time the Sulu pirates held Bohol, Cebu, Negros, Leyte and even a part of Panay under tribute. When communities refused to pay tribute they were attacked by these daring invaders, their men slain, their houses burned, their property looted, and their wives and daughters taken as slaves away to the south.

Undoubtedly the Madrid government did the best it could under the circumstances. It appropriated large sums of money for men-of-war, forts, weapons and ammunition, and directed the Philippine officials to exterminate the piratical communities. But the money was diverted into the pockets of colonial office-holders. Thousands of offensive natives were slaughtered in the wars, while the governors wrote home accounts of imaginary victories and glowing descriptions of the blessings of peace. At the end of their terms they came back rich for life.

**COLONIAL
OFFICE-HOLDERS
ROB SPAIN.**

The most pretentious effort made by the Spanish to terminate the constant warfare between Spain and Sulu was the establishment of a settlement at Zamboanga, at the extreme southeast point of Mindanao. Here they built a walled city, constructed strong forts and made it a naval station and arsenal second only to Cavite. Directly opposite Basilan, and in such close proximity to the Sulu archipelago, it provided a fine base of operations, offensive and defensive. But so little care was taken of the sanitation of the place that it soon became known as the sepulchre of Spain. The absence of sewage and sanitation, combined with the heat and moisture, developed malarial diseases whose deadliness astonished even the Spaniards. Of one garrison of a thousand men, 850 died in a single year.

In 1750 the governor-general of the Philippines sent a large expedition from Manila to attack Sulu, but the fleet returned to Zamboanga having accomplished nothing. The islands were continually ravaged by the Mohammedan sultan. At last, in 1770, there was a



INSURGENT FORTIFICATIONS NEAR CAVITE



JOHN CHINAMAN IN MANILA

The Chinese made several warlike invasions of the Philippines without success before they gave up that policy. But their peaceful invasion has been highly successful. Thousands of them live in Manila, where they are prosperous bankers, merchants and mechanics.

tacit agreement for peace between Sulu and Spain, because both parties were exhausted with warfare. From that time until 1851 pirates occasionally ravaged Spanish cities and Spanish gunboats destroyed Sulu craft, but nothing amounting to war occurred.

In the latter year troubles began again and for twenty-five years affairs got more and more intolerable. The bold ravages of the sultan throughout the archipelago compelled another Spanish expedition in 1876, which destroyed several forts and killed many natives, but lost more men than it destroyed. Nevertheless, it brought about a temporary peace. The sultan admitted the sovereignty of Spain over the Sulu domain and Spain induced Great Britain and Germany to sign a protocol recognizing the treaty. In 1880 a British company colonized a large tract of land in Borneo, recognizing the suzerainty of the sultan of Sulu. Spain made a vigorous protest, but the British government decided in favor of the sultan. After some negotiations, Spain gave up all claim to land in Borneo belonging to the Sulu sultanate.

**PIRACY
BECOMES
INTOLERABLE.**

In 1887 insurrection again broke out in the islands and in Mindanao itself. The Spanish government sent its fleet at post haste to the seat of disorder and also forwarded re-enforcements for the various garrisons which had been established in the enemy's country. A few months after this insurrection was put down another broke out. In 1888, however, comparative peace was established throughout the Sulu archipelago and since that time the Spaniards have been in legal possession of the country. They have some ten garrisons scattered at different points throughout the islands. Outside of the coasts they have no authority or power whatever. The sultan of Sulu rules the same as ever, and the native, not Spanish, laws are observed. The population of the group is estimated at 150,000, but that is probably less rather than greater than the actual population. As a matter of English law, the sultan of Sulu exercises sovereignty of a qualified sort over several Borneo sultans. According to Spanish law, he exercises some feudal authority over the chiefs of Palawan, a large Mohammedan sultanate in Mindanao, and over several small tribes on that island and the island of Basilan. Nevertheless, they have done what

they could to reduce the authority to a minimum, regretting every point that they have been compelled to yield to his influence.

The most efficient Spanish governor ever in charge of the difficult situation in Sulu was General Arolas, whose history is a notable one.

He has always been an outspoken republican, ready to fight for his convictions. He has told American callers in Sulu of his warm admiration for the United States as a type of what a republic should be, adding

that if he were not a Spaniard he would be an American. In the days when the republican party triumphed in Spain, Arolas is said to have cast the royal throne out of a window with his own hands in order to show his respect for its former occupants. After the fall of the Spanish republic, he continued to display what was considered unseemly activity, and there seems little doubt that when he was honored with an appointment as governor of Sulu, it was with the intention of exiling him to a place from which he was not likely to return.

The new governor found the town unhealthful, the defenses inadequate, and the garrison in constant danger of annihilation. He made prisoners of the Moros and compelled them to work in strengthening the defenses until these were made impregnable. He improved the sanitation of the town, changing it from a fever center to an unusually healthful place. He constructed water works, built a splendid market, established a free-school system and thoroughly equipped a hospital. The Sulus soon became the wonder of the Philippines. At last with one gunboat and two regiments he attacked Maibun, the sultan's capital, and inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Moros. The sultan contrived to escape, but many important chiefs were killed, the heavy guns taken, and the fortifications destroyed. Arolas followed up his advantage and attack succeeded attack until the fanatical Moslems were cowed as never before. Several times Arolas escaped unscathed from deadly peril and the Moros believed that he bore a charmed life. They called him "papa." And when "papa" gave orders they were treated with great respect. In his dealings with them he was just, but absolutely merciless. Every threat that he made was carried out to the letter. For once the Suluanos had met their master and they knew it.

In 1892 Governor Arolas returned to Spain and his successor proved to be by no means as capable, although he did not have long to prove his ability. Finding things apparently quiet, he decided to require the Moros to pay taxes and issued a decree to that effect. The sultan himself, with a band of his men, presented themselves armed, offering to yield to the order. The sultan came forward, presented the governor with a bag of pearls, and then, suddenly drawing a barong, split the Spaniard's skull to his teeth. The Moros fell on the surprised soldiers and won a complete victory. But two or three of the Spanish soldiers escaped by hiding in a subterranean passage. The town was destroyed by the Moros.

**DARING OUTRAGE
IN THE
CITY OF SULU.**

The second island of the Sulu group in importance and population is Tawi Tawi, which is inhabited by piratical, slave-hunting Moros. There is a little Spanish garrison on the north coast at Tataan, about which a few refugees have gathered, but nowhere else in the island is it safe to travel. It is not strange that little is known to civilization about the characteristics of the islands of this archipelago when danger lurks at every hand. However, it is known that Tawi Tawi is covered from end to end with forest. In the old days when slaves were more numerous in the Sulu islands, the virgin forest was cleared from a large area near the towns and fruit trees were planted in its place. The result is that the forests near the settlements are composed almost entirely of trees which produce edible fruits. Wild hogs are abundant likewise, for there is almost no one to hunt them, and, with plenty of food and little molestation, they have multiplied astonishingly.

The surface of Tawi Tawi is uneven, but the hills, though steep, are low and of quite uniform height. Near the center a precipitous mountain rises to an elevation of some 2,000 feet.

The slave business still flourishes in Tawi Tawi and to some extent in the other Sulu islands, although not so much as here. Girls of fifteen years are valued

**SLAVE TRADE
EXISTS IN
TAWI TAWI.**

at about five bushels of rice. The slave dealers of Tawi Tawi are said to have no difficulty in selling all the able-bodied men they can capture to the Dutch planters in Borneo.

The subjugation and possession of the Sulu archipelago will provide much interesting and energetic labor for the United States if it is decided to retain ultimate possession of the Philippines. It is to be doubted if even the most persistent office-seekers will make strenuous effort to obtain appointment to authority there, under the conditions that they will have to meet. The Mohammedan Moro of the Sulu sultanate seems to value life not at all, and to be quite willing at any time to die if in the process he can take the life of two or three Christians into eternity with him. Politically and geographically this group must go with the Philippine archipelago itself, but it will be the most puzzling part of the possession to govern. The Sulu Mohammedans of Borneo have given no trouble to the British who hold the sovereignty, and, on the other hand, they have been treated with great tact and caution by their British rulers. The authorities leave them alone in their religious views and advise the missionaries to use all

**HOW TO
GOVERN THE
SULU.**

possible tact in their endeavors to introduce Christianity. It is difficult to discover any middle ground in the methods of governing these peoples between the English system in effect in India, of leaving the natives in full liberty to practice all customs and religious observances which do not conflict with life and human safety, and the energetic policy of General Arolas of exterminating every one in reach, at the first sign of irritation or disagreement.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE PEOPLE OF THE PHILIPPINES.

Divisions of the Native Tribes—The Negritos or Aborigines of the Philippines—History of the Moro Invasion of the Philippines—Their Wars with the Spanish Conquerors—Bravery and Ferocity of the Moros—Organization of Their Government—Weapons of the Moros—Characteristics and Dress of the Men and Women—Their Skill as Boatmen and Pearl Divers—Their Antipathy to Christians—"Running Amuck"—Religious Beliefs of the Moros—The Pagan Malays—The Partially Civilized and Christianized Filipinos—The Tagalogs, Ilocanos and Visayans—Hospitality and Generosity of the Natives—Universal Cleanliness—Happy Family Life—Their Good Qualities and Their Bad Ones.

NO one knows with any measure of accuracy, the total population of the Philippine islands. Census returns, even where the Spaniards have been most entirely in control, are notoriously careless and unreliable, while there are scores of islands and many distinct tribes which are virtually unknown to explorers and unimpressed by any mark of civilization. The usual estimate of the population, however, is from eight to ten millions for the entire archipelago. This number is divided between at least eighty distinct tribes, which in a broad classification may be grouped as Negritos, Mohammedan Malays, Pagan Malays and civilized Malays.

The original population of the Philippines was the tribe known as Negritos. These aborigines are at the bottom of the scale in mentality and in physique, little black fellows, who are rapidly disappearing and seem destined to speedy extinction. The best judges of island character declare them to be incapable of civilization, a fact which lessens the regret that they are vanishing. The largest number of them remaining are in the islands of Mindanao and Negros, where they people the splendid forests clothing the mountain slopes. There are also a few of the Negritos left in Mariveles mountain, near the mouth of Manila bay on the island of Luzon, while in the vicinity of Cape Engano, at the northeastern extremity of the same island, they are still quite

numerous. Even at the time of the Spanish conquest the Negritos were becoming decimated by their conflict with the Malay invaders.

**NEGRITOS OR
ABORIGINALS OF
THE ISLANDS.**

Now they have become a wretched, sickly race of almost dwarfish stature. Although not of the African type, their hair is curly, their skins black and their features coarse and repulsive. Agriculture is little practiced by them, but they depend for food upon the products of the forest and upon the game which falls before their poisoned arrows.

The Moros, or Mohammedan Malays, are chiefly confined to the islands of Mindanao, Palawan, Basilan, Sulu, Tawi Tawi and Mindoro. The Moros have played a very important part in the history of the Philippines. They were a people of Borneo, who arrived in the archipelago just at the time of the Spanish discoverer. Landing first in Basilan, they spread rapidly over the small islands of the Sulu and Tawi Tawi groups, eventually occupying the whole coast of Mindanao, the southern third of Palawan and the small islands adjacent. Before they had completely overrun Palawan, they were interrupted by the Spanish troops in their own conquest and since then they have not been able to advance their settlements.

How Warfare Was Begun.

The first encounter between the Spaniards and the Moros resulted from an unprovoked attack made by the European traders upon one of the Moro chiefs of Mindanao. The result was disastrous to the aggressors, who were almost annihilated. The fierce Moslem warriors returned the attack with all the stimulus of their fanatical passions. They raided the Spanish and native coast towns of the central and northern islands with annual piratical expeditions, meeting with great success and taking thousands of captives and rich treasure. For more than 250 years these forays continued, while in every village watch-tower in the northern islands there was constant vigilance by the sentries who watched for the approach of the Moro fleets. The success of the raiders was continued. Not only were natives enslaved by thousands, but Spanish planters, government officials and priests were killed or held for ransom.

The history of the Philippine islands is largely the history of the

Wars between Spanish and Moro forces. Of course, the Spaniards could not submit tamely to such an intolerable state of affairs. Expedition after expedition was sent against the Mohammedan forces, and with great expense of money and life a few temporary successes were gained. Garrisons were established even in Sulu, only to be massacred or driven from the islands. Finally, with the improvement in fire-arms accessible to the Spanish forces, and the construction of light-draft steam gunboats and rapid-fire guns, the Spaniards gained an advantage which could not be overcome and piracy was reduced to a minimum. Gunboats patrolled the islands in every channel. No Moro craft was permitted at sea except with a written permit from the nearest Spanish governor. Any prau violating this order was either rammed and sunk by any gunboat meeting it or swept by the fire of the machine-guns, no quarter ever being given. Then village after village was destroyed by shells from the gunboats, even the town of Sulu, which had been the residence of the Moro sultans, suffering destruction in 1876. A Spanish military post was established in its place, and in spite of frequent warfare Spanish occupation has been virtually continuous since that time. Other Moro strongholds in the different islands were taken and fortified, the coast villages burned, and the inhabitants driven to the hills, until finally by tacit agreement a sort of armed truce began, which, with frequent interruption, has continued until the present time.

**WARS BETWEEN
MOROS AND
SPANISH.**

Our Most Dangerous Subject.

The sultan of Sulu is the ruler of all the Moros in the Philippines, although his authority is not very well established in Mindanao, where there are two subordinate sultans. Under the sultan of Sulu, the authority is delegated to a regent, who acts during his absence; a minister of war and a minister of justice, with a local chief in each district and a mandarin in each village. The higher authorities in the church are the cherifs, hereditary officers who have certain authority in temporal as well as spiritual affairs. Under them are panditas or priests, who look after the immediate spiritual welfare of the people. The Mohammedanism of the Moros is hardly as well defined or carefully practiced as that of the Mohammedan countries of Asia. Their mosques

are built of bamboo. Their language, which is written in Arabic characters, is based on Sanskrit roots.

The Moros do not fail to justify the reputation given them that they are among the most ferocious and daring people of the earth and among the most difficult to control. All the males above sixteen years of age go armed, except those in settlements sufficiently under Spanish

**WEAPONS
OF THE
SAVAGE MOROS.**

dominion that this practice may be prevented. Their weapons are of excellent steel, beautifully finished and admirably adapted for the violent use for which they are intended. The barong, the campilan and the kris are those most favored. The first is somewhat after the fashion of a butcher's cleaver, with thick back and thin edge. The strong and skillful warrior prides himself on being able to cut an opponent in half if he can get a chance for a fair blow. The campilan is a straight-edged, two-handed sword, with a blade wide at the tip and steadily narrowing towards the hilt; it is used only for cutting, for which it is thoroughly effectual. The straight kris is a narrow-bladed, bevel-edged sword used for cutting and thrusting. The serpent kris, with its wavy, double-edged blade is used for thrusting and inflicts a horrible wound.

The men are of medium height and superb muscular development. They dress in pantaloons, waistcoat, jacket, sash and turban, all gaudily colored and showily embroidered. Their pantaloons are usually skin-tight below the knee and loose above. The rank of a Moro is indicated by the way he ties his turban. Under all circumstances a Moro carries barong, kris or campilan thrust into his sash. If he expects serious trouble, he has in addition a shield of light wood and a lance with a broad, keen head. His conveniences for working steel are of the simplest, but the blades which he produces are highly tempered and often beautifully finished. He sometimes works silver in with the

**DRESS OF
MORO MEN
AND WOMEN.**

steel or even inlays it with gold. The hilts of his side-arms are of hard, polished wood or ivory and are sometimes handsomely carved. He is crazy to get hold of fire-arms, but seldom succeeds, and at any rate is usually a very bad marksman.

Moro women are exceedingly fond of bright colors, scarlet and green being their favorites. Their garments are a skin-tight waist, a

baggy divided-skirt, and a novel garment called the jabul, made by sewing together the two ends of a long piece of cloth. This is draped about the body in various ways and may be thrown over the head to keep off the sun. Moro children usually possess clothes, like those of their elders, but they make very little use of them.

The men are very skillful boatmen and sailors. The boat which they use, the prau, is of the type familiar among all the islands of the south Pacific, a frail-looking affair, skillfully carved out of a log, with outriggers which prevent the boat from sinking even when filled with water and guarantee its stability. They are swimmers of marvelous skill and their performances in diving for pearls are almost incredible. Other than that, however, the men consider it beneath their dignity to engage in manual labor.

The Moro is a born warrior and chafes under restraint. He disdains to work and expects his wants to be supplied by his wives and slaves. He gives much time to the care of his arms and to perfecting himself in their use. He tries to terrify an opponent by making hideous faces, uses his shield very skillfully, and in battle is the bravest of the brave. Inhuman cruelty, however, is one of his characteristics, and he will cut down a slave merely to try the edge of a new barong.

One unpleasant phase of life among the Moros has been the system by which the orthodox native proves the merit of his religion. The Moros believe that one who takes the life of a Christian thereby increases his chance of happiness in the future life. The more Christians killed, the brighter the prospect for the Moro, and if he is only fortunate enough to be himself killed while slaughtering the enemies of the faithful, he is at once transported to the seventh heaven. From time to time it happens that one of them wearies of this life, and, desiring to take the shortest road to glory, he bathes in a sacred spring, shaves off his eyebrows, dresses in white and presents himself before a pandita to take solemn oath to die killing Christians. He then hides a kris or barong about his person and seeks the nearest town. If he can gain admission, he snatches his weapon from its concealment and runs amuck, slaying every living being in his path, until he is finally himself dispatched. The number of lives taken by one of these mad fanatics

“RUNNING AMUCK”
TO KILL
CHRISTIANS.

is sometimes almost incredible, but he is eventually killed himself and his relatives have a celebration when the news of his death reaches them.

The religion of the Moros is a modified Mohammedanism. They believe that the sun, moon and stars are the light of God. There are no other worlds than this in the universe, but there are beings which inhabit the air above us and the earth beneath our feet. They worship God and die like ourselves. There is one god called Toohan. Man differs from the brutes in his higher intelligence and in his ability to speak. Animals have spirits, but they are not like the soul of man and vanish into thin air when death comes. The soul of man lives forever. It enters his body at the top of his head when he is born, an opening being left between the bones of the skull for that purpose. It leaves the body at death once more through the skull. When one dies his soul, according to some panditas, goes directly to the place of God; according to others it goes under the earth to sleep until the last day. A bad man's soul eventually goes to hell, which is a place of torment where one is punished according to his sins. If he has talked too much his mouth pains him; if he has been jealous, cruel or treacherous, it is his heart; if he has been murderous or thievish, his hand. In the course of time every man's punishment is finished and he goes to heaven.

Some panditas say that one's punishment consists in misfortune, disappointment and suffering here below, and that atonement comes before death. Others declare that the good souls wait in the air and the evil ones in the earth, and there is neither hell nor judgment until the end of the world. Then all souls, good and bad, will be swept up as by

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS OF THE MOROS.

a great wind and carried to the Mount of Calvary, where they will meet Gabriel, Michael and the Weigher, who will weigh each one. Souls heavy with sin will be sent down to hell. The Moros believe in all the Old Testament characters like "Ibrahim," "No," "Adam," "Mosa," "Sulaiman," "Yakub," and others. They know the outlines of the stories of Adam and Eve, the flood, etc. According to them, Jesus Christ, called by the Moros Isa, was a man like ourselves, but great and good and very powerful. He was not a son of God. The Moros hate and kill the Christians because they teach that men could punish and kill a son of God.

The Tagalogs are the people of the Philippines who are likely to come most closely in contact with Americans in the beginning because it is they who have been most active in the insurrection against the Spanish in Luzon around Manila. In the Philippines are, perhaps, five million civilized natives, belonging for the most part to three tribes, the Tagalogs, Ilocanos and Visayans. While the tribes differ and there are even differences within the same tribe under varying conditions, still the civilized natives are sufficiently similar to be considered as a single class in looking toward the future of the islands. The best students of the islanders believe that the natives are naturally fairly intelligent and often most anxious for an opportunity to get some education. The fact that the great mass of the people are ignorant affords no proof that they are stupid, for they have been deliberately kept in ignorance from the time of the Spanish discovery until now.

**CIVILIZED RACES
OF THE
PHILIPPINES.**

The moral obligation to tell the truth does not weigh heavily upon the Filipino. The civilized natives often lie to conceal the most trivial shortcoming, or even without any excuse whatever, and the detection of a falsehood brings no regret except chagrin that the practice has not been more dexterously carried out. The Filipino cannot understand punishment for falsehood, because it is not to his mind an offense. For a fault which he recognizes, however, as such, he will submit to punishment without a murmur, and indeed he thinks more of a master who applies the rattan for punishment when it is deserved, than of one who does not. On the other hand, he is quick to resent what he considers to be injustice and will bide his time in silence until his vengeance is certain.

The natives of the Philippines have not made eminent contributions toward the advance of science, literature and art, but that proves little as to their capacity under a regime of development. Even as it is, the Tagalog race has developed one painter of merit, one author of excellent ability, and some wood-carvers who have done admirable work. But the average native, situated as he is, could not be expected to make any advancement along such lines. Within his own sphere

**POSSIBILITIES
OF
NATIVE CULTURE.**

he is certainly ingenious and ever ready with a remedy for any mishap which may occur.

The Filipino frequently shows himself irresponsible in financial affairs, spending money that he should save and borrowing what he is not likely to be able to repay. On the other hand, he seldom repudiates his debts, and if called upon to meet them does his best.

The charge that the Filipino is indolent does not weigh heavily upon those who know the conditions. The man who would exert himself unnecessarily in such a climate, whether white or native, would be subject to much curiosity. No one can work there as he would in a temperate climate and live. Nature has done so much for her children in these islands that they have no need to labor hard in order to supply their few and simple wants. Spanish administration has not been such as to encourage the natives to pile up money for the tax-gatherer and the village friar to make way with. Once they are made to realize new wants of their own, they will work to satisfy them. In Siquijor, Bohol and other islands where hard natural conditions make it difficult to earn a livelihood, the people are noted for their industry and are, consequently, in demand as laborers.

It is well to emphasize that the civilized Filipino has many good qualities to offset his bad ones. He is hospitable to the limit of his means, and will go to any amount of trouble to accommodate some perfect stranger who has not the slightest claim on him. Every village has its bath and the people are notable for their personal cleanliness. The homes are well regulated and the family life is peculiarly happy. The children are orderly, respectful and obedient to their parents and respectful to strangers. Wives are allowed an amount of liberty hardly equaled in any other eastern country, and they seldom abuse it. They have their share of the work to do, but it is a just share and they perform it without question and without grumbling.

The civilized native is self-respecting and self-restrained to a remarkable degree, patient under misfortune and forbearing under provocation. When he does give way to anger, however, he is as likely as not to become for the moment a maniac and to do some one a fatal injury. He is a kind father and a dutiful son. His aged relatives are

**MANY GOOD
QUALITIES OF THE
FILIPINOS.**

never left in want, but are brought to his home to share the best that it affords to the end of their days. Among his fellows the Filipino is genial and sociable. He loves to sing and dance. He is a born musician and his performances upon the instruments at his disposal are often very remarkable. He is naturally fearless and admires nothing so much as bravery in others. Under good officers he makes an excellent soldier, and he is ready to fight to the death for his honor or his home.

Out of the many wild tribes of the Philippines other than those which have been mentioned in connection with the descriptions of the various islands, it is necessary to mention here but a few more, the names of which will become familiar to American students of conditions in the Philippines. The word Igorrote, which was originally the name of a single tribe, was extended to include all the head-hunting tribes of Luzon, and later became almost synonymous with wild, so that when one speaks of the Igorrotes at the present day he refers to a number of fierce hill tribes which differ widely. Head-hunting is practiced by the Gaddanes, but is for the most part confined to the season when the fire-tree is in bloom. It is said to be impossible for a young man of this tribe to find a bride until he has at least one head to his credit. There are a number of other head-hunting peoples, among whom may be mentioned the Altasanes and Apayaos. Not all of the wild peoples are warlike, however, the Tinguianes, for instance, being a peaceable, well-disposed race.

**HEAD-HUNTERS
OF THE
ARCHIPELAGO.**

The large island of Mindoro, which lies directly south of Manila bay, is the least known island in the northern Philippines and is almost universally avoided by white men. The natives frequently refer to it significantly as the white man's grave. At the present time it is celebrated chiefly for the unsavory reputation of its people, the heaviness of its rainfall and the deadliness of the miasma in its fever-smitten lowlands.

Once Mindoro was famous for its splendid crops of rice and its people were peaceable Tagalogs. Their prosperity attracted the attention of the Moros, who raided their towns. Then an epidemic exterminated the buffalos, leaving the natives without means of tilling their

land, and cholera did the rest. Now the few poverty-stricken villages on the east coast which are supposed to be under Spanish protection and control, amount to little. It is unsafe for white men to visit in the villages on the west coast. The once rich fields have grown up to forest land and the island is a rendezvous for desperate criminals who escape from the neighboring provinces and seek refuge in Mindoro, where they are safe from pursuit.

In the interior of Mindoro are a number of lofty mountains, the highest peak attaining an altitude of nearly 9,000 feet. These mountains and the adjacent lowlands are clothed in magnificent forests which the hand of man has never disturbed. Between the mountains and the west coast are extensive plains covered with high grass. East of the mountains are heavily timbered lowlands crossed by numerous rivers. There are no maps or charts of this island sufficiently accurate to be of any value to travelers. The rainfall is enormous for nine months of the year, and even during the dry season, from March to May, exploration in the interior is frequently interrupted by the heavy rains.

**MINDORO, THE
LITTLE-KNOWN
ISLAND.**

The principal town of the island, considered to be the capital, is Calapan, and other settlements around the coast are Manganin, Mansalag and Naujan. Calapan is on the northeast coast, opposite Luzon. There is no anchorage and the surf runs so heavily during the autumn months that steamers are often forced to carry the mails by without landing. The only Europeans at the capital are the necessary officials and a few shop-keepers, while outside of Calapan half a dozen friars form the entire Spanish population of the island.

There is a tribe of primitive savages dwelling in Mindoro, entirely distinct from any found elsewhere in the archipelago. They are called Mangyans and bear a very bad reputation for savagery to strangers. The most exhaustive exploration of Mindoro was made by Professor Worcester, who declares that the bad reputation of the Mangyans is by no means justified. Instead of being the dreaded head-hunters and cannibals of whom such alarming reports are circulated, they proved to be as harmless as children.

The houses of the Mangyans are of the crudest sort, huts which

are mere platforms of poles with shelters of leaves above them. Natives wear but little clothing and live in the rudest fashion in the depth of the forest. The Mangyans are found both in the lowlands and in the mountains, the mountaineers being in every way superior to the lowlanders. They are physically well developed and comparatively free from disease. Their noses are very flat. Their heads are covered with great shocks of black hair, often showing a tendency to curl. Professor Worcester reports that the tallest of the men was five feet and one-half inch in height.

**THE MANGYAN
NATIVES
OF MINDORO.**

Apart from the vegetables and grain which their clearings afford, they eat certain roots and tubers which grow in the jungle, as well as any birds they can get, civet-cats, rats, monkeys, snakes, lizards and fish. Crocodiles they consider a great luxury, although they are seldom able to catch one. In hunting they use bows and poisoned arrows, and occasionally manage to bring down a wild hog. All of the Mangyans who have been questioned, emphatically deny any belief in a future life. They do not show the slightest evidence of idolatry or any worship or religion of any sort whatsoever. They are, however, moral in their personal relations and honest in the extreme. Professor Worcester says: "On the whole, after making somewhat extensive observations among the Philippine natives, I am inclined to formulate the law that their morals improve as the square of the distance from churches and other so-called civilizing influences increases."

Mindoro is infested with many bandits known as Tulisanes, who hunt in parties, robbing and murdering in the boldest manner, after the fashion of bush-rangers in the earlier history of Australia. They make travel in Mindoro exceedingly dangerous. The natural resources of this island are undoubtedly great, but the combination of its dangerous Tulisanes and its exceeding unwholesomeness makes it far from attractive for the American traveler.

**TULISANES, THE
BUSH-RANGING
BANDITS.**

CHAPTER XV.

FAUNA AND FLORA OF THE PHILIPPINES.

Novelties in Animal and Vegetable Life—House Snakes in Place of Cats—Water Buffalo as Beasts of Burden—Wild Buffalo and Deer—Cattle and Goats—Few Carnivorous Animals in the Philippines—Enormous Colonies of Bats—A Field for the Ornithologist—The Source of Birds' Nest Soup—Land and Water Reptiles—The Fish Markets in Manila—Pearl Fisheries in the Sulu Islands—Exuberant Vegetation—Rose Bushes Become Trees—Fruits with Strange Names and Stranger Flavors—Wealth in the Forests of the Philippines—Beautiful Woods of Great Value—An Opportunity for Enterprise.

THE animal and vegetable life of the Philippines offers a subject of endless interest to the traveler. Nature takes strange forms so universally that one sees hardly a single familiar thing in a Philippine landscape. The trees are different, the flowers are different, the birds and animals are different, while even the insects upon the earth and the fish within the sea are altogether novel. Parties of American zoölogists who have traveled there have found the islands almost a virgin field for their labors, so little have the Spanish done to investigate scientifically.

Not all of the surprises are pleasant, nor does one have to be a zoölogist to come early into contact with the animal life of the Philippines. It is necessary if one is to enjoy any comfort during his residence in the islands, to rise superior to such trivial things as armies of cockroaches and plentiful mosquitoes, and rats. The cockroaches grow to a size which justifies them in being classified as beasts of prey, those three or four inches in length being quite common. They are annoying pests for their destructiveness, playing havoc with everything of leather and paper. Books, shoes and everything of the sort suffer from their attacks.

In order to counteract the attacks of the rats, nearly all of the older houses in Manila possess what are called house-snakes. These



A FARMER'S CART IN THE PHILIPPINES

Bringing rice from field to market at Catamba.



A SOCIABLE GROUP

American soldiers in Manila fraternizing with native Filipinos.



FILIPINO POLICEMAN WITH PRISONERS

The policeman's uniform is not a very distinguishing one, but it will be seen that he carries a rattan whip for minor punishment or persuasion and a Malay knife for more urgent use. The prisoners are tied together by the arms.

are harmless but huge reptiles, generally twelve or fourteen feet long, that permanently reside up in the roof and live on the rats. They live between the cloth ceilings and walls of the houses and the rafters, never leaving their abodes. The natives carry them about Manila for sale, curled up around bamboo poles, to which their heads are tied.

**SNAKES
AS HOUSEHOLD
NECESSITIES.**

The Philippines contain several varieties of buffalo which are not found elsewhere. They are known in the language of the natives as carabaos. These water buffaloes are found wild in most of the larger islands. They are often caught young and tamed, after which they are employed for beasts of burden. They do most of the heavy hauling and carting of the country and are very docile, although extravagantly slow. They require a daily mud bath and will not work without it. The price of the full-grown carabao broken to work is not more than thirty dollars at the outside and sometimes as low as ten dollars.

There is a smaller buffalo, found only in the island of Mindoro, where it lives in the densest jungle. This little animal, called the timarau, is a creature of most vicious temper and apparently untamable. It is graceful in shape and movement and runs very swiftly. Hair and skin are black and horns large and extremely sharp. The timarau if trapped will usually kill itself in trying to escape, and in any event will refuse to eat. It voluntarily attacks and kills the much larger carabao.

Several species of deer are found in the archipelago, in some localities sufficiently numerous to become a valuable addition to the meat supply. One species is hardly larger than a goat and another is still smaller. It is known as the chevrotain or mouse deer and is exceedingly rare.

**ANIMALS WHICH
FURNISH FOOD
FOR MARKET.**

Wild pigs are found in the islands in great abundance. They live on food which produces very dainty flesh and the meat is much favored in Luzon. There are no wolves or foxes in the islands and no wild dogs. Cattle are extensively raised for beef on some of the islands. They are of a small humped variety, and in the Visayan islands bullocks are often used as draft animals. Milk is always very

scarce, while fresh butter and cheese are not to be had at any price. Goats are common and are prized both for their milk and their flesh.

The Philippines are poor in carnivorous animals. A small wildcat and two species of civet-cats are the most conspicuous representatives of the order. The marsupials which are so numerous in the Australasian colonies are not found here. In Luzon and some of the other islands are numerous varieties of bats in great numbers. At nightfall in some places they are so numerous as to resemble a great flight of birds. The little vampire is there who prefers blood for his diet. Then the large fruit-bats occur in enormous colonies. Their fur has some commercial value and the natives occasionally eat them. Smaller insectivorous bats are numerous.

Nature has been as generous to the Philippines in birds as she has been niggardly in animals. Some 590 species have been identified by ornithologists. Some of them are of great value

**BIRDS FOUND
IN GREAT
VARIETY.**

as food and others are notable for their beauty. There are pheasants, pigeons, eagles, parrots, ducks and song birds of great variety. Here in the Philippines is found that species of swift, or sea-swallow, which builds the nest so favored by the Chinese as a food. These nests are found at the proper season in caves or upon almost inaccessible cliffs, and the gathering of them is attended with considerable risk. They are made from a salivary secretion which rapidly hardens on exposure to the air into a substance resembling white glue in appearance. The best of the nests bring almost their weight in gold from the Chinese epicures.

The reptiles of the Philippines are abundant in variety and number. Crocodiles are found in the fresh-water lakes and streams, where they grow to great size. Every year they kill many men, horses, buffaloes and smaller animals. Then there are iguanas or large land and marsh lizards, the largest of which grow sometimes eight feet in length. These, however, are altogether harmless, and they are considered very good eating by those who are willing to try them. Iguana eggs are almost exactly like turtle eggs. There are other smaller varieties of lizards, some of them living on the ground and others in trees, while in the houses of Manila the littlest ones are very common and are not considered to be an annoyance.

Some of the species of snakes are very venomous, although the loss of life from snake bite is not great. Pythons and other snakes of the constrictor family are very plentiful, but as they are not poisonous they are in no way dreaded.

SNAKES,
VENOMOUS
AND HARMLESS.

The skins of these make a capital leather and are used a great deal for decorative work sold in shops. There are cobras in Samar, Mindanao, and the Calamianes islands. Then there are venomous varieties known as the rice-leaf snake and the alimmorani, the bite of which is as fatal as that of a rattlesnake. Besides these there are many water-snakes which are very poisonous, some of them even in Manila bay.

The fish-markets of Manila offer many varieties of fish in great quantity, nearly all strange to the American eye. Most of them, however, are salt-water fish. They form the staple animal food of the natives. Fresh-water fish are less important. Then there are several kinds of shell fish and crustaceans, all palatable and nutritious. Near Sulu there are extensive beds of pearl-oysters which yield beautiful shells and very fine pearls as well. At present the fisheries are entirely in the hands of Moro divers, and all pearls above a certain size go by right to the sultan of Sulu. Chinese buyers purchase the rest of the pearls and the shells. From another oyster, handsome black pearls are obtained.

The fruits, flowers and trees of the Philippines are as varied and novel as the birds. There does not seem to be a spot in the Philippines, excepting around active volcanoes, where there is not exuberant vegetation. The climate is such as to encourage nature to do her best. Flowers seem to be more gorgeous than in any country within the temperate zone. Not only are the flowers indigenous to the Philippines found everywhere, but many transplanted to these islands have far outstripped their original growth. The geranium becomes a perfect weed in the gardens and fields of Manila, while the heliotrope grows as a great bush six feet high and a dozen feet in diameter, weighed down with a load of blossoms. Roses and tulips grow on trees. Oranges and lemons are grown here and produce their exquisite blossoms in enormous quantities. Every yard is a blaze of blossoms and flowers are so cheap that it is hardly necessary to pay for them.

The fruits are even more novel than the flowers, hardly any of the northern varieties being found in the Philippines. The mango is found in its perfection and the banana will win favor from those who have never cared for it before. Paw-paws, shaddocks, oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, guavas, pineapples, cocoanuts, figs, grapes and tamarinds are names most of them familiar to us at home, although the fruit in the Philippines is superior. Less familiar dainties are the durien, the finest fruit of all, which has an exquisite flavor, but an odor like that of limburger cheese, the chica, the lomboy, the loquat, the mangosteen, the lanzon, custard apples, the santol, bread fruit, jack-fruit, the mabolo, the laichee, the macapa and the avocado or alligator pear.

**FRUITS
IN GREATEST
VARIETY.**

The forests of the Philippines contain an inexhaustible supply of woods of many valuable sorts, which offer commercial opportunities as soon as the islands are opened for development. Perhaps no commercial opportunity is better than the ones that will be found in the forests. The woods range from the quick-growing palm to the hard woods which require a century for their full development. Many are of remarkable beauty in color and grain, taking a high polish and undergoing the heaviest strains or severest wear without susceptible damage. The narra or Philippine mahogany is a beautiful wood which grows to very great size. The banaba is hard, tough, and of a beautiful rose-pink color. There are many ebony trees of fine quality. The lanotan is often called ivory wood on account of the remarkable resemblance it bears to ivory.

A dozen others might be named, each with special qualities which give it great value and each found in quantity sufficient to justify dealing in it as a business enterprise. Under the Spanish regime the immense natural wealth in timber has not brought one-tenth of the income to the colony which it would under better conditions of trade. Yet notwithstanding red tape and costly governmental interference, the profit is so large that a steady trade is done by Manila and Iloilo with other parts of the world.

**ENORMOUS
WEALTH IN
THE FORESTS.**

CHAPTER XVI.

MINERAL WEALTH OF THE PHILIPPINES.

Motives Which Stimulated the Era of Exploration and Discovery of the Early Voyagers—Spanish Discouragement of Mining Operations in the Philippine Islands—Native Methods of Obtaining Gold—Gold Bearing Districts of the Philippine Archipelago—Work of the British Mineral Syndicate—Silver and Galena—Coal and Lignite—Copper, Quicksilver, Platinum and Tin—Iron Mining and the Experience of an Iron Miner—A New Petroleum Field—Minor Mineral Products—Opposition of the Catholic Church in the Philippines to the Mining Industries—The Influence of Gold Discoveries upon the Development of Remote Regions.

THREE objects of search stimulated the energy and the cupidity of those monarchs of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries who fostered the exploration of remote lands and seas. They wished to discover new races which might be converted to Christianity for their own glory and the aggrandizement of the Church; they sought the islands which would produce rich spices and silks in order to pour the treasures of the Orient into their own coffers and their own kingdoms; furthermore, they wanted to find gold and other precious metals which tradition always locates in the least known and least accessible countries.

Less attention, however, has been given by Spanish explorers to the mineral wealth of the Philippine islands than to any other phase of their natural riches. The Spanish government throughout almost the entire period of its possession, has not only refused to examine and develop its own resources, but has actually discouraged every one else who has attempted to do what it declines to do itself.

Gold has long been known to exist in the Philippines, and was mined by the natives long before the Spanish discovered them. They say that the yellow metal has been extracted from the rocks and the

soil from time immemorial, and they still continue to dig it in a haphazard way, using the rudest and most wasteful methods. They know nothing of amalgamation, nor do they understand the value of pyritic ores. They have neither powder nor dynamite, and work only rich quartz and alluvial deposits. For the latter they use washboards and flat wooden moulds, losing all the float-gold. The gold-bearing quartz is crushed by hand or ground between heavy stones turned by buffaloes and is then washed. The shafts are bailed by lines of workmen who pass small water-buckets from man to man. Even by these primitive methods, they obtain the precious metal in considerable quantities.

**CRUDE MINING
METHODS OF
NATIVES.**

The gold of the Philippines was better known in the past than it is to-day. The Chinese books refer to the archipelago as a land of gold and many precious ores, and as a matter of fact one can learn more about the mineral resources of the country in Hong Kong than in Manila. As early as 1572 there were mines in North Camarines, which lies to the southeast of Luzon, and in the same century the natives practiced quartz mining in northern Luzon. In 1620 an army officer found out that some half-caste Chinese were extracting large quantities of gold from mines in the provinces of Ilocos and Pangasinan, in northern Luzon. The Chinese were attacked and killed, but the victorious soldiers never found the mines. Within recent years gold deposits were found on the east coast of Mindanao, and the captain of a steamer trading in that neighborhood reported that the output of the washings was at least ten pounds a day and that nearly all of it went to Chinese traders. Even in Manila province the natives washed the sand in the river near Montalban and obtained enough gold dust to pay them for their trouble. The Sulu warriors bring both gold dust and nuggets to Borneo, and claim that there is an inexhaustible supply on their island and Basilan.

Valuable deposits of gold have been found in several other islands of the group. There are old alluvial workings in Cebu, and Mindanao has rich gold-bearing quartz in addition to its placer mines. On Panaon there is known to be at least one vein of gold-bearing quartz. The name of Mindoro is said to be derived from *mina de oro* (gold mine),

and natives often offer travelers in that island a chance to see places where rich deposits are found.

No serious and systematic effort ever has been made to develop the great mineral wealth of the Philippines. There have been spasmodic attempts at different times, but they have almost invariably resulted in failure, owing to insufficient means of transportation, the difficulty in securing labor, and especially to lack of capital. Within the last few years a British company called the Philippines Mineral Syndicate, Limited, has been conducting systematic explorations, and it is from their reports that the accompanying information has been made available. The operations of the syndicate have proved the alluvial deposits in Luzon to be extensive as well as rich, while the auriferous formation from which they have been derived is believed to extend throughout the "backbone" of the island. The mountain peoples nearly all traffic in gold. Many of the deposits on the Pacific slopes of Luzon are very near the sea, and it is fair to believe that if modern machinery were introduced and transportation lines opened, the Philippines might become a great gold-producing center.

**BRITISH CAPITAL NOW
INTERESTED.**

Silver is found in the Philippines, though not to so wide an extent as gold. There are very large deposits of silver lead at Acsubing, Panoypoy, and Riburan on the island of Cebu. There is galena, bearing both gold and silver, in Dapitan and Iligan, in the island of Mindanao.

True coal has not been discovered in the Philippines, but very extensive beds of excellent lignite have been found in Luzon, Cebu, Masbate, Mindanao, Negros, and Mindoro. Experimental tests have shown it to be a fairly satisfactory fuel for steamers, and nothing except the complete lack of suitable means of transportation prevents the development of these deposits. Although a large supply of coal has been maintained at Manila, which has been imported from Great Britain, Australia and Japan, the Spanish administration has preferred to pay ten or twelve dollars a ton for 25,000 tons every year rather than build a small railway on the island of Cebu from Compostella to the coast, which would deliver the lignite in unlimited amounts at a cost of not more than \$1.50 a ton. It is hardly to be doubted that systematic exploration would lead to the discovery of true coal.

Copper ore occurs in Luzon and Mindanao in large outcrops and is utilized by the natives, but it has not been successfully mined by Europeans. In Mindanao there is also quicksilver, platinum and tin.

**MINERALS
OF LUZON
AND MINDANAO.**

Iron ore of excellent quality, yielding up to 85 per cent of pure metal, exists in Luzon, and other excellent iron districts are found elsewhere in the island.

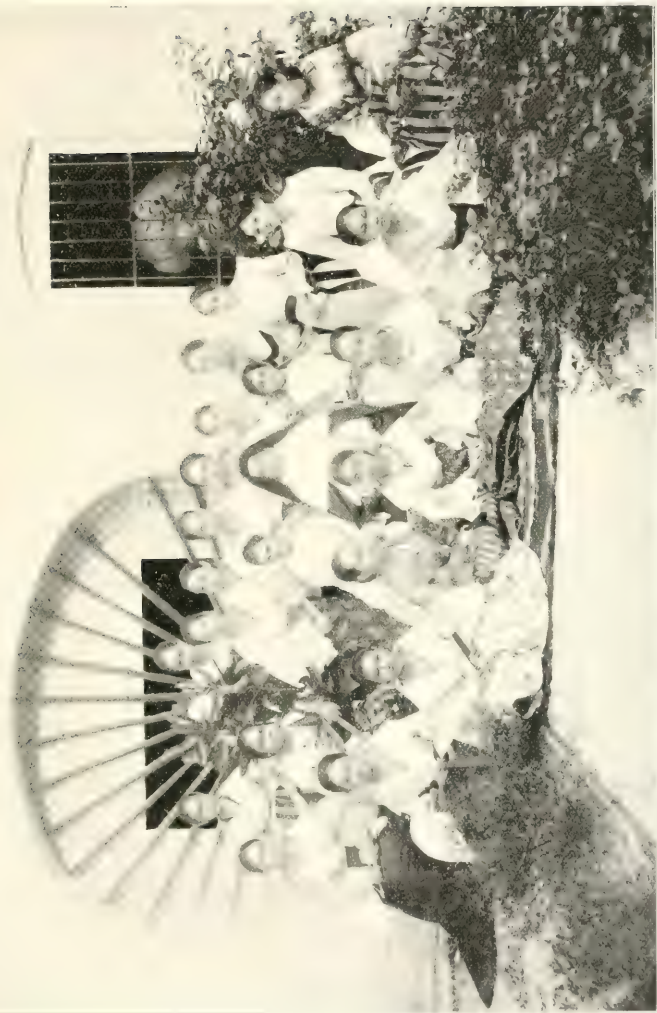
In the last century, iron mines were worked with great success in Morong, but were finally closed by the government on the ground that the workmen, who were Chinese, were not Christians. The luckless owner was obliged to send all these workmen to China at his own expense, and the government refused to pay him for the iron he had already delivered, on the ground that he had insulted the Church in employing pagans. The iron mines of Angap in Bulacan are richer and purer than the best Spanish ore, which is so popular in the iron foundries of England.

In different parts of the archipelago, large deposits of sulphur and arsenic are found, in the volcanic regions sometimes of the utmost purity and sometimes mixed with copper and iron. Explorers report valuable discoveries of slate, borax, plumbago, granite, coral rocks, sandstone and limestone. There are deposits of gypsum on a small island opposite the village of Culasi in western Panay and also Mindoro. Large beds of good marble are found both in

**RICH TREASURES
FROM EARTH'S
STOREHOUSE.**

Luzon and Romblon. Mines of natural paint, probably red lead, are found in Mindoro. Petroleum occurs in several of the islands, one of the best districts being in western Cebu near Toledo, where free flowing wells have been opened.

Once American industry and enterprise obtain a foothold in the Philippines and enough discoveries are made to stimulate more active search, it seems reasonably certain that valuable mineral wealth will be found in commercial quantities. It has been the history of the world that the discovery of gold was the most influential factor possible in inducing rapid immigration, settlement and the development of civilization and all its kindred industries. California, Australia, South Africa and Alaska are the latest and most notable examples of this historical truth.



A GROUP OF SPANISH MESTIZOS

This group of young women posed in the doorway of a Catholic school of which they were pupils. As will be seen, there are many of the Chinese and the Filipino types as well as the Spanish. The Mestizo class includes many of the most attractive women of the island.



NATIVE FISHING BOAT, MANILA

The Pasig river flows into the outer bay, and is spanned by several fine bridges, of which this is called the Malabon.



RIVER PASIG, IN THE CITY OF MANILA

This river which divides the city carries much of the trade, by means of the queer native boats called cascocs shown at the banks.



ARSENAL OF CAVITE

Here the Spanish had stored their great stock of munitions of war, when Dewey came down from Hongkong and drove them out.



IN THE STOCKS FOR THREE DAYS, MANILA

Methods of punishment in the Philippines were crude and cruel to us. Here is a native prisoner with a native guard.



A BATHING POOL IN THE PHILIPPINES

This primitive shower bath scene is from a photograph taken near the town of Mugarlaung, Luzon, province of La Laguna de Bay.



NATIVE WOMEN OF THE PHILIPPINES

This picture shows excellent types of the Filipinos and their manner of dress. It was taken in Taguig, near Manila.

CHAPTER XVII.

'NATIVE INDUSTRIES OF THE FILIPINOS.

People of the Islands Not More Indolent Than Might Be Expected of Them—
Extreme Age of Some of the Native Industries—What the Chinese Have Done—
Fabrics Made from Pineapple Fibre—Novelty of the Shell Industries—Pearls
Made to Order—Window Panes of Oyster Shells—The Indispensable Bamboo—
The Cultivation of Cacao—Cocoanut Palms and Their Products—Cotton Cul-
tivation Discouraged by the Spanish—Corn and Potatoes—The Value of Rattan—
Rice the Staple Native Food—How Rice is Cultivated—Native Hemp Industries.

AS HAS been said in an earlier chapter, the native Filipinos are by no means as indolent as they are generally credited with being, and are quite as industrious as they could be expected to be in such a climate and under such a governmental regime as has existed during the Spanish administration. The Filipinos have their own native industries, which are quite distinct from the commercial industries which depend on the rest of the world for their prosperity and their market. It is true that many of the native industries have taken on a commercial form in late years. In many cases their product of one sort and another has been such as to win favor for itself by proving its merit.

Many of the native industries are very ancient, especially those involving spinning and weaving and the utilization and manufacture of sea-shells into useful and ornamental articles. The Chinese have done much to introduce various occupations among the Filipinos, following the same custom that has been theirs wherever they have found inferior races in their immigrations. It is to the Chinese that many of the leading industries, therefore, are credited.

The most important of these industries, from a commercial point of view, is the manufacture of a beautiful fabric from the fibre of the pineapple leaf. This cloth, known variously as pina and nipe,

wins favor wherever it is shown, although it is little known in the United States. The cloth has the brilliancy and strength of silk, com-

**HOW PINEAPPLE
CLOTH
IS MADE.**

bining beauty with excellence in wearing qualities. The making of the cloth is not a complicated process. The leaves are rotted under water and in the sun, in order to separate the long threads and free them from gum, sap and foreign matter. These threads or hairs are very fine, varying in color from white to grayish and yellowish white. After being carefully washed by the native women, they are woven upon a simple hand-loom which bears a strong resemblance to the native looms used in China. The fabric resulting is considered the most exquisite that can be had for woman's dress in the Philippines. The same fabric is produced in Cuba, where it is equally popular. It is the custom there, however, instead of weaving the cloth locally, to ship the fibre in bales to Spain, where it is woven on more perfect looms. In Spain and in France the fabric is considered one of the most beautiful that can be obtained, and those American women who have seen it quite agree with that judgment.

The shell industries of the Filipinos are peculiarly interesting and altogether novel. Nature has furnished material in endless quantity and variety. The simplest form of shell work is to make bracelets and necklaces out of little shells of great variety, some no larger than children's glass beads. Live shells are preferred to dead shells in all the work and bring much higher prices, live shells of course meaning those in which the animal is living when taken from the water. The oyster shells of many species are utilized for this work. Some are perfectly flat, while others are deep and large. Conchs are found in numerous variety, widely varied in color and shape. From small shells spoons of all sorts are made. The bowl may be of a bright golden color with a high luster, the outside being pearl-gray or pink. These spoons are very cheap and can be bought in any size for a few cents a dozen. From the conch shells are made handsome bowls, tureens, vegetable dishes, cups, saucers, plates, pin-boxes, jewel-cases, card-receivers, ash cups and tobacco jars.

One of the most interesting industries is the utilization of the Philippine fresh-water mussel to produce pearls and pearl-covered

ornaments at will. This mussel exceeds even the oyster in the quantity though not the quality, of the liquor which by evaporation or separation produces mother-of-pearl. The introduction of a bit of sand into the mussel will result in the production of a pearl in a few weeks, poor in quality of course, but still a pearl. Little images are placed in the mussel in the same way and taken out to be sold after they are coated with pearl. The images thus obtained are sold to Buddhists, who treasure them as excellent representations of their great teacher.

**HOW
PEARL IMAGES
ARE MADE.**

The preparation of window panes from the flat Manila oyster shells is a large trade among the natives. The shells are split and cut into small squares and other regular shapes, forming an excellent substitute for glass. They shut out, perhaps, half the light, which is not an objection in such a climate, and in addition have the quality of mica of shutting out all of the heat. When fine qualities of shell are employed, the resulting tints are truly beautiful, offering a suggestion of genuine opalescence. On other varieties of shells exquisite engraving is done in low relief, representing landscapes and figures, with a most beautiful display of delicate tints over the whole. Cowrie shells, catseyes, little images of native figures and shell cameos are various phases of the native shell industry.

In the forests and fields the Filipinos find many of their local industries. The bamboo is as valuable to them as it always is to the natives wherever it grows, becoming almost absolutely indispensable. It furnishes him with frame, siding, and sometimes even roofing for his house, and from it he fashions rafts, out-riggers for his boats, sledges, agricultural implements of many sorts, lance heads, bows, bow strings, arrows, spoons, forks, fish traps, water pipes, cups, fences, bridges, musical instruments and almost anything else that he needs. The areka palm, which grows near the native houses, produces the nuts so much used for chewing. From 200 to 800 nuts per year will grow on a single tree, the local demand for them providing occupation for many natives, and they are used somewhat in Europe for manufacturing a dentifrice.

**NUMEROUS USES
OF THE
BAMBOO.**

The cacao tree, which produces the chocolate bean, has flourished

in the Philippines since it was imported from Mexico early in the seventeenth century. The rich seeds are borne in large fleshy pods. Bushes are raised from the bean and bear the fourth year, reaching maturity two years later, by which time they have attained a height of about ten feet. The beans find ready sale for home consumption, but the industry has not yet reached a commercial status. More detailed information about the cultivation of cacao will be included in a later chapter in this work, in connection with the agricultural conditions of Puerto Rico, where it is cultivated commercially.

The cocoanut palm flourishes throughout the Philippine islands, often growing in soil too poor to produce anything else. Trees come to bearing in six or seven years, and yield on an average twenty nuts per month. The ripe fruit is made into large rafts and floated to market, wherever possible, but when waterways are lacking it must be hauled on buffalo sledges. There is a steady local demand for the oil, which is the illuminant almost invariably used by the natives and is sometimes used in place of lard for cooking purposes. Copra, as the dried meats of the nut are called, is exported in considerable quantity to Europe. Copra is used for making fine soaps and cosmetics.

**RAISING COCOA-
NUTS FOR
THE MARKET.**

The castor oil bean grows wild on many of the islands, and its oil is extracted in a small way for the local trade. It is not an article of export. A species of tree cotton grows wild on many of the islands. The fiber is too short to be of value for weaving, but it is used for stuffing pillows and like purposes. Long-staple cotton was at one time successfully raised in Ilocos, but its cultivation was discouraged by the authorities, who preferred to have the natives grow tobacco.

Corn is raised as a staple food article in some of the central and southern districts, especially in Cebu. On good land it yields about two hundred fold and three crops can be grown in a year. The demand for it is quite limited, as many of the natives will not eat it. Potatoes are grown in Cebu, Negros and Luzon. Those thus far produced are very small. There is a good demand for them and the price is high.

Rattan is very abundant and like bamboo is put to a thousand uses. Its stems are of uniform diameter, grow to enormous length and are very strong. They are used in place of ropes and cables or

are split and employed for tying together the parts of house-frames, canoes, fences, carts, sledges, and agricultural implements, as well as for binding hemp bales and sugar sacks. Split rattan is also used in bed making and chair seating. Demand for it is steady and many natives earn a living by cutting, splitting and marketing it.

**RATTAN
GROWS IN
ABUNDANCE.**

The staple food of the common people is rice, and they are quite successful in raising it. In former years considerable quantities of rice were exported to China, but at present the crop is insufficient for the home consumption. There are more than twenty different kinds of paddy. They may be roughly divided into two classes, the lowland rice and the highland rice. The former grows on alluvial soil under water. The fields where it is raised are divided into small plots surrounded by mud banks for the better control of the water supply. The grain is sown on the seeding plot to sprout, and when it has reached proper height is transplanted to the flood fields. As a rule but one crop per year is obtained, the yield varying from fifty to a hundred fold. The highland rice is of inferior quality, but grows without irrigation. The yield is about half as much as the other, but two or three crops can be raised in a year.

The methods used in rice culture and harvest are of the crudest. The ground is prepared for the lowland rice by flooding it and working it with muck rakes drawn by carabaos. The young rice shoots are stuck in by hand and the ripe heads of grain are often cut one at a time with a small knife blade, though sickles are sometimes used. Threshing is usually accomplished under the feet of women or cattle, more rarely by means of wooden flails. The grain is freed from the husk by pounding in a wooden mortar and flat baskets are used for winnowing. Very rarely one finds simple home-made machinery for pounding or winnowing grain, but there is nothing of the sort in general use.

**CRUDE METHODS
OF
RICE-CULTURE.**

The manufacture of hemp and of hemp-rope is partly native and partly Spanish. The natives had learned the virtues of hemp long before the Spanish discovery of the islands. They made an excellent rope, employing nearly all of the principles which are used to-day in that manufacture. Besides twisting the threads, the cords and the

strands, they also braided them and with the braids in turn made strands by twisting and a second braiding. The braided ropes were often quite flat and were practically straps. They are still utilized as harness for their ponies and buffaloes and for rigging upon their primitive water cart. The same hempen straps are used for the making of sandals and rude rugs and for nearly every purpose to which the leather thong or strap is put by savage races. Although the native ropes are inferior to those made by Europeans or under European directions, they are strong, durable and extremely cheap, costing only a third to a fifth of the more finished product. At one time these native styles of cordage might be considered as part of the commercial industry of the country, but the exorbitant export duties and internal taxation crushed out the native enterprise.

The commercial industry of hemp production, as well as that of tobacco, sugar, coffee and gutta percha, will be considered in the following chapter. They are the phases of industry in which native labor is employed, but which depend for their prosperity not on local trade, but upon intercourse with the rest of the world. The line to be drawn in this classification is a clear one and readily understood. Without an exception, the purely commercial industries are under the direction and management of Europeans, some of them Spanish colonists in the Philippines and others representing great commercial firms of France, Germany and England.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE COMMERCIAL INDUSTRIES OF THE PHILIPPINES.

The Land Where Our Ropes Come From—How Hemp is Grown—The Principal Hemp Ports of the Archipelago—Extracting the Fibre from the Plant—Wasteful Methods of the Natives—Sugar Land and the Crop It Yields—Methods of Extracting Sugar from Cane—Manila Tobacco and Cigars—When Tobacco Was a Government Monopoly—Value of the Export Trade—Great Cigar Factories of Manila—The Coffee of the Philippines—Gutta Percha in Mindanao—European Firms Control the Export Trade—How to Reach the Philippines—Inter-island Communication.

THE most notable and profitable industry of the Philippine islands, the one which is actually essential to the world's convenience, is the production of Manila hemp, from which our ropes are made. This archipelago has long furnished the whole world with its entire supply of the fiber. The only attempt to produce hemp outside of the Philippines which has met with any success whatsoever, is one recently made in North Borneo, but this has not been continued long enough to affect the industry in the Philippines. The product is something enormous. The average number of bales exported for the years 1888 to 1897 was 651,897, but the output has been steadily increasing and in 1897 it reached a total of 825,028 bales.

Manila hemp, known in the Philippines as abaca, is the fiber of a wild plantain. Its plants so closely resemble those of the edible banana that only an expert can distinguish them. Abaca will not live on swampy land, yet it requires considerable moisture, so must be shaded by trees which can resist the sun. The best plants are grown at a moderate elevation, on hillsides from which only the smaller forest-trees have been cut. The best thus far grown has been raised in Leyte, Marinduque and the districts of Sorsogon and Gubat in Luzon.

Except Manila itself, the principal hemp ports are in the central and southern islands of the archipelago. Iloilo is one of some importance. The greatest, however, is Cebu, and others of large commerce in hemp are Catbalogan, on the island of Samar, and Tacloban, on the island of Leyte. Every port among those neighboring islands finds its commerce in the hemp industry. Surigao, at the northeastern extremity of Mindanao, is not a large port, but it ships some of the best hemp that comes into the Manila market and it is of consequent importance in the islands.

The slender stem of the wild plantain is enveloped by overlapping, half-round petioles, which produce the fiber. In order to extract it the plant is cut and the leaf-stems are separated and allowed to wilt for a short time. Each is then drawn between a block of wood and a knife hinged to the block, and provided with a lever and treadle so that it can be firmly held down on the stem. By this means the pulp is scraped from the fiber, which is wound around a stick as fast as it is drawn from under the knife. The whole little machine is so absurdly simple, with its rough carving knife and rude levers, that it hardly seems to correspond with the elaborate transformation that takes place from the tall trees to the slender white fiber.

One man can clean only twenty-five pounds of hemp a day. When it is remembered that the harvest for 1897 was more than 825,000 bales, weighing 240 pounds each, it seems the more remarkable that so rude an instrument should have such an important part to play. After being drawn from the leaves the hemp is next spread in the sun for at least five hours to dry, when it can be immediately baled. Most of the hemp presses are run by man power.

Abaca is usually propagated by transplanting the suckers that spring from its roots. It reaches maturity in three years from these cuttings and in four years from seed. It should be cut when it flowers, as fruiting weakens the fiber. There are no insect pests that injure the growing plant to any extent. It is necessary to employ native laborers and they must be closely watched, as they are inclined to allow the petioles to rot and to use serrated knives in drawing the

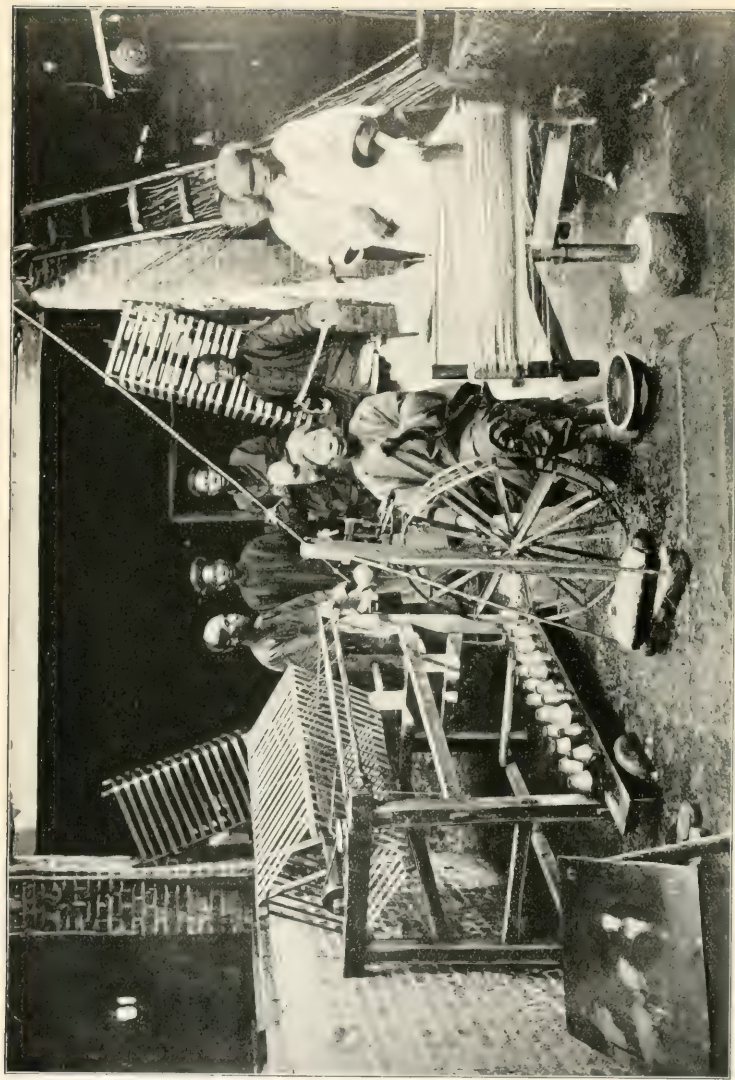
**HEMP PORTS
OF THE
SOUTHERN ISLANDS**

**HOW THE
NATIVE LABORERS
WORK.**



NATIVE HUCKSTER OF MANILA.

As in all countries of the Orient and many of Europe and Spanish America, the market supplies for household use are carried through the streets by hucksters, who cry their wares energetically.



SPINNING IN MANILA

The spinning-wheels and looms used in the manufacture of textile fabrics in the Philippine Islands are very different from those employed in the same service in our own country. Nevertheless, the Chinese merchants and operatives, types of whom are shown herewith, turn out a large quantity of work, and do a business of considerable importance.

fiber, thus decreasing the labor of extracting it, but sacrificing its strength.

About thirty per cent of the fiber is wasted by the present method of extraction and a fortune undoubtedly awaits the man ingenious enough to devise a suitable labor-saving machine to take the place of the simple device at present used for drawing it. Numerous attempts to meet this want have been made in the past, but the various contrivances have all failed through either breaking the fiber or discoloring it. To be of practical value a machine must be light enough to be readily carried about by a few men. Under existing conditions abaca plantations are estimated to yield under careful management an annual return of thirty per cent on the investment.

The second commercial industry of the Philippines in its importance as an export is sugar growing. The best sugar land is found in the island of Negros and not more than half of it is under cultivation. Good uncleared land sells for \$50 per acre and cleared land for \$75. The value of land suited to raising sugar varies with the facilities for drainage and the distance from market. Partially exhausted land near Manila brings as much as \$115 an acre, while Luzon land producing a third more sugar, but at a distance from the capital or any other good port, sells at \$30. All of these values are estimated in the silver currency of the islands. The construction of railways would do much to open up new country and readjust values.

The sugar estates in the Philippine islands usually are small, not more than a dozen of them producing above 1,000 tons each per annum. In spite of this fact, the crop has been a large one. In 1888 exports reached their maximum with more than 200,000 tons. Since that time they have fallen off, owing to the increased production of beet sugar and the consequent depreciation of that obtained from cane.

There are local variations in the production of sugar in the Philippines, although the essential processes are about the same as in other countries. Tahiti cane is planted in Luzon, and Java cane in the southern islands. Nearly all the Negros grinding mills are of European make. Antiquated wooden or stone crushers, run by buffalo power, are extensively used in the other sugar-producing districts. Transporta-

**KINDS OF SUGAR
MACHINERY
USED.**

tion to the coast is by buffalo cart or by water. Negros has no port which will admit large vessels, and sugar must be shipped to Iloilo in small steamers or schooners.

In the northern Philippines the syrup from the boiling pans is poured into porous earthen pots, holding about 150 pounds each, and is then allowed to drain. The molasses, which is caught in jars, is sold to distilleries for making alcohol. In Negros the method is different. The syrup is boiled longer and is finally poured into large wooden troughs and stirred with shovels until it cools, forming a dry sugar which is ready to pack at once. The sugar produced by the method first described is called "clayed" sugar. It must be broken up and sun-dried before it can be shipped.

The cigar factories of Manila are the chief local industry of the city. The manufacture of tobacco products has been the chief source of revenue under the Spanish regime, to church and state as well as to the merchants. Including the raising of the tobacco by field laborers on the plantations and the makers of the trade supplies, the industry gives employment to several hundred thousand people. The famous Manila tobacco is a descendant of plants brought from Mexico to the Philippines by missionaries in the latter part of the seventeenth century. The plants flourished in their new home and the natives soon became exceedingly fond of tobacco.

During the first two centuries of Spanish rule, little attention was paid to the cultivation of tobacco, but in 1781 a royal decree of Spain declared the entire tobacco business of Luzon to be a government monopoly. The natives were compelled to raise it against their will, outrageous abuses arose and rioting often resulted. By one expedient after another and laws of remarkable cruelty, the Spanish succeeded in raising the revenue from about two millions in 1840 to five millions in 1859 and eight millions in 1870. Natives were compelled to raise tobacco where before they planted corn and rice. Finally another law was passed whereby any land not cultivated in tobacco was appropriated by the government and given to any appointee who would devote it to that purpose. Under tyranny and starvation the natives rebelled and great violence was shown by the soldiers who put down

**SPAIN AND
THE MONOPOLY
OF TOBACCO.**

the insurrection. Finally, on the last day of 1882, the monopoly was at last abolished by law and the whole disgraceful business was brought to an end.

Although the best Philippine tobacco is not considered equal to the choicest Cuban crop, it is nevertheless excellent. Thus far comparatively little systematic effort has been made to improve its quality. There is no question that the quantity of the crop might be greatly increased and its quality bettered by more careful growing and curing. Until now the best results have been obtained in north Luzon, although tobacco is grown also in Panay, Negros, Cebu and Mindanao. Up to the present time the business has been conducted without any interference on the part of the Spanish government, although the income from the tobacco business in Manila has been a generous addition to the revenues of the colony. In 1897 the leaf tobacco exported was more than 800,000 pounds, while the cigars numbered nearly 157,000,000. In addition the home consumption is very large, for everybody smokes in the islands, native and foreign, man, woman and child. The tobacco is milder and not as well flavored as the Cuban. It comes close to the Mexican leaf, from which it is descended, but, according to experts, is a trifle better than the latter.

**VOLUME OF
THE TOBACCO
TRADE.**

The tobacco factories in Manila range from small shops to establishments employing hundreds and even thousands of operatives. They are large, roomy buildings, well ventilated, and with excellent sanitation. The operatives are mainly girls and women, mostly half-castes and natives. The largest concern employs more than 10,000 operatives.

Coffee of excellent quality is readily grown in the Philippines, where the bushes come to bearing in their fourth year. They grow best at a considerable elevation, where the temperature does not average above seventy degrees Fahrenheit. The bushes require shade and moisture and yield but one crop of berries annually. These are picked from the trees by hand, heaped up in piles for a few days, and then washed to get rid of pulp. The price of coffee at Manila varies greatly from year to year. The most extensive plantations are near Batangas

**CONDITIONS
OF COFFEE
CULTURE.**

in the island of Luzon. The coffee raised in the Philippines is of the same varieties and qualities as that from the Dutch East Indian possessions and can be just as favorably marketed. The export trade in coffee has not been exceedingly large, but the local consumption is considerable.

Gutta percha of good quality is abundant in certain localities in the Philippines, particularly in Mindanao. It is hardly known as a Philippine export, as the two or three men who have dealt in it have kept their knowledge to themselves as far as possible.

The export trade in hemp, sugar, tobacco and the other commercial products of the Philippines has been in the hands of European houses. Several important English, German, French and Spanish firms have houses in Manila, but the only American concern in the islands withdrew from business there the year before the outbreak of war. The trade of the islands is highly profitable and has been well organized by the representatives of these great concerns. No doubt they are well prepared to take advantage of the multiplied opportunities that will exist under the American regime. Nevertheless, such monopolies cannot hold all the good things, and beyond doubt there will be opportunity for ample commercial enterprise for the American investor who journeys thither.

It is a journey of more than a month to reach the Philippines from the United States, by the methods of travel which have existed. The only communication they have had by regular passenger lines with the ports of Asia is by steamers running between Hongkong, Amoy and Manila. Then there was a Spanish line sailing directly from Spain and touching at Singapore. Hongkong is the usual port of sailing for Manila, so that it remains for the prospective traveler to reach Hongkong, either by way of San Francisco or the Suez canal, as suits him best. The journey eastward is ten days longer than that westward. No doubt a direct line from San Francisco to Manila, via Honolulu, will be established in the near future, but until that time comes one must depend on the older steamship companies.

**HOW TO REACH
THE
PHILIPPINES.**

CHAPTER XIX.

THE LADRONES AND OUR OTHER PACIFIC ISLANDS.

Our Territory in Polynesia—Way Station Needed Between Honolulu and Manila—The Ladrone Islands and Their History—The Capture of Guam—A Slight Mistake on the Part of the Governor-General—An American Installed in Authority—Rebellious Constituents—Naval Station to Be Established in Guam—A Boom in the Ladrone Islands—Wake Island for a Cable Station—The Island of Kusaie—The Wreck of the Morning Star—An Episode of the Civil War—The Carolines—The Harbor of Pango-Pango in the Samoan Islands.

THE taking of Manila has given to the United States relationships to the islands of the Pacific that were never anticipated before the outbreak of war. With amazing speed we have found ourselves becoming a world-power, with commerce reaching out into the eastern hemisphere and the corresponding necessity to provide coaling, naval and cable stations for it. It is nearly 5,000 miles from Manila to Honolulu, which has been considered the limit of our possible outposts in the great Pacific ocean. Five thousand miles is too far for prompt action in the event of emergency, and it is evident that possessions in the Philippines require us to have way-stations between San Francisco and Manila. Honolulu and Pearl Harbor provide the first of these, coming to us peaceably and by annexation in response to the desire of the people of Hawaii. For any other new territory, we had to look to the possessions of Spain and the employment of force.

The first voyage of transports which bore troops from San Francisco to Manila for the relief of Dewey, resulted in adding territory to our new possessions. Guam, the most southerly island of the Marianne or Ladrone group, was seized and placed under the American flag. Guam lies almost directly east of Manila and some 1,500 miles away.

The archipelago which includes it is a part of that greater group of islands of the west Pacific known as Micronesia.

The Ladrões were discovered by Magellan in 1521, as related in the first chapter of this book. They were next called the Marianne islands in honor of Queen Maria Anne of Austria. The present usage is to accept the title given by Legaspi, the Ladrone islands. The Jesuit fathers established a mission in the islands in 1668. The mission house was fortified, garrisoned with thirty-one soldiers and armed with two pieces of artillery. Within two years after the landing of this expedition, an attempt was made to curtail the liberty of the natives and to create a system of taxation. The natives revolted and from that time to the present revolutions have continued. Many priests were killed, as well as soldiers, and the deaths were avenged by wholesale upon the natives.

The people have been compelled to devote so many days every year to government work and also to pay over to the tax-collectors of church and state a heavy proportion of the grain, yams, copra, pigs and fowls that they could raise. Less than twenty years ago, the governor, Senor Plazos, was assassinated in a popular uprising. The total population of the Ladrões when first discovered was more than 100,000, but they now number hardly more than one-tenth as many. Although the Spanish expense of government has been reduced to a minimum, the entire revenue has been but one-half of the expense of administration. There are nine towns in the islands and the capital is Agaña, on the island of Guam. The Spanish reports say that there are twenty schools and twenty-six teachers, with about 500 enrolled scholars. The attendance, however, is only about fifty, and probably it would be very difficult to find the number of teachers and schools reported.

The first fleet of troopships sailed from San Francisco on May 22, reaching Honolulu seven days later. On June 4 they sailed from Honolulu with sealed orders. When land had been left behind, the sealed packet was opened by Captain Glass of the Charleston, and it was found that the fleet was ordered to stop and capture Guam in the Ladrone islands.

When the fleet reached the island of Guam the Charleston en-

tered the harbor, passed the unoccupied fort of Santiago and steamed up to a position near Fort Santa Cruz. She fired twelve shots at the fort and there was no response. She then steamed on into Port de San Luis de Apra, where the town of Agana, the seat of government in the Ladrones, is situated. This was on the morning of June 20. During the afternoon the captain of the port and a health officer came off in a small boat. They extended the apologies of the governor-general and said that there was not enough powder for them to return the kind salute of the Americans. Captain Glass invited them into his cabin and questioned them for a few minutes regarding conditions in Guam. He then told them that war had been declared and that they were prisoners of war. Their astonishment was profound, for they had heard absolutely nothing to indicate that war was even threatened against Spain. Captain Glass then sent them on shore to ask the governor-general to come to see him. The governor-general did not come, but sent an interpreter and secretary, who said that the rules of the country forbade the governor-general leaving shore or going on a foreign warship. He, however, invited the captain of the Charleston to come on shore at 10 o'clock the following morning for a conference. He guaranteed the safety of the American officer. At 8 o'clock the following morning Lieutenant W. Braunersreuther, of the Charleston, was sent on shore. He had an ultimatum to deliver to the governor. The lieutenant was accompanied by a small number of men, but companies A and B of the Oregon volunteers were held in the rear of the landing party. The governor was at the wharf to meet them. The ultimatum was delivered, and it granted thirty minutes in which to surrender the Ladronè islands. Failing in this, a landing party was to be brought ashore and the city captured. Inside of the time limit Governor-General Marina delivered into Lieutenant Braunersreuther's hand a sealed envelope containing his answer. The lieutenant started to break open the envelope and the governor-general remonstrated, saying that the letter was for Captain Glass. Upon being assured that the lieutenant acted as a representative of Captain Glass he was appeased. The letter contained an absolute surrender. The lieutenant gave him a few hours for preparation, as he was to be taken to Manila

**BOMBARDMENT
INSTEAD
OF A SALUTE.**

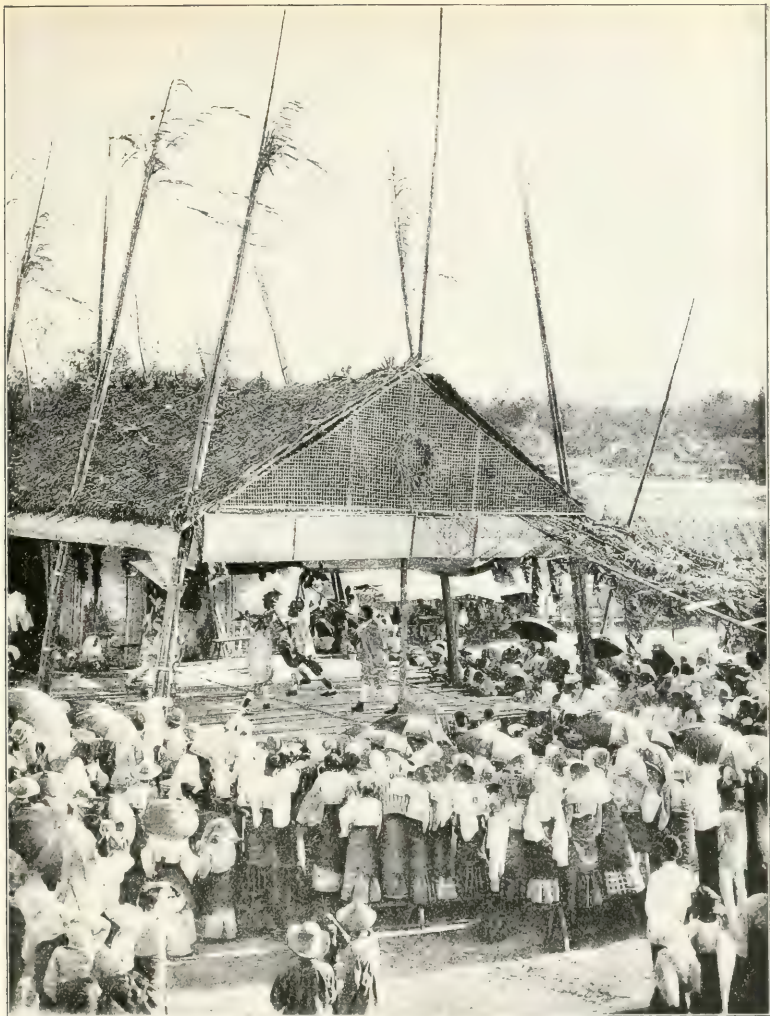
as a prisoner. After this the governor-general, two high officials, fifty-four Spanish soldiers and some natives were taken to the Charleston and later to the City of Sydney.

The disarming of the Spaniards was an interesting incident. Forty-six marines and sailors were sent ashore, and the Spanish soldiers, 108 in number, were lined up and their arms were confiscated. Fifty-two Mauser rifles and 7,500 rounds of Mauser ammunition, sixty-four Remingtons and 2,000 rounds of Remington ammunition were taken from them. The native troops were then informed that they would not be taken prisoners. Their joy at hearing this was unbounded. They exhibited the wildest enthusiasm and delight, tearing off their Spanish uniforms and buttons and welcoming the fact that they were relieved of Spanish rule. They were assured that they would be well cared for. The American ships sailed on the morning of June 22.

The only American resident at Guam was a naturalized citizen of Spanish birth, named Francis Portusach. He was given temporary charge of the reins of government by Captain Glass and was left there in his supremacy and glory, our first colonial governor.

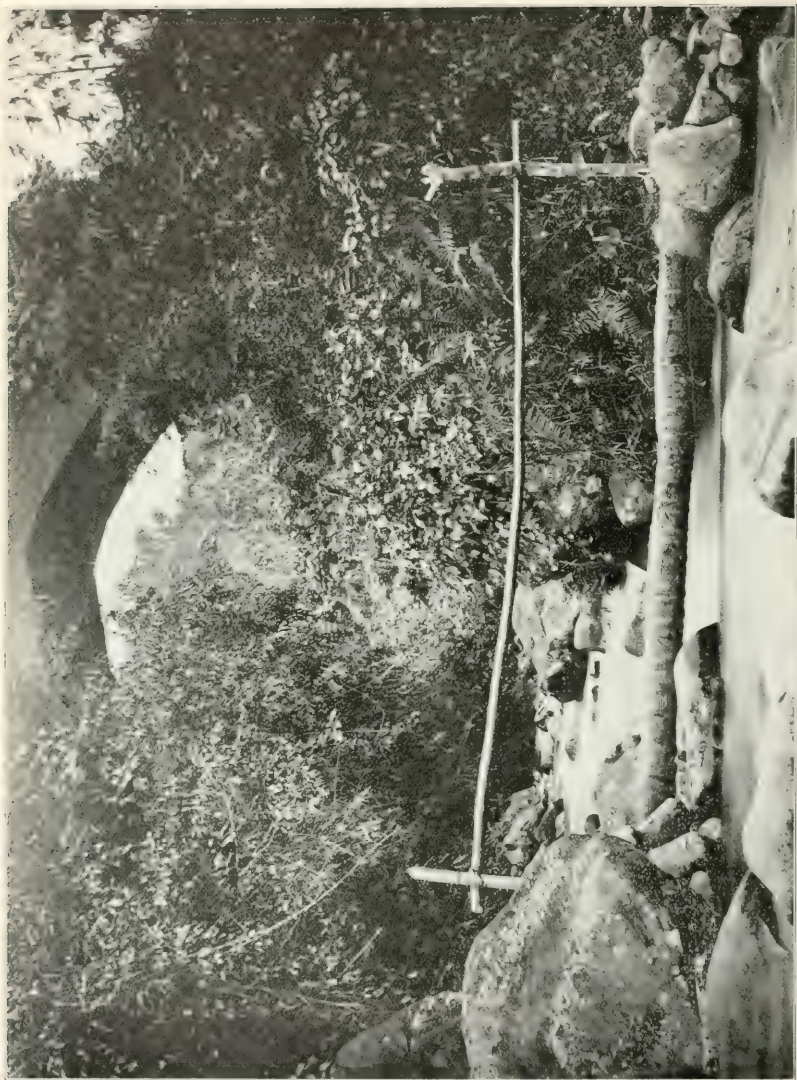
The next information which reached the United States concerning Guam was on the last day of December, six months after the governor had been installed in power. The British schooner *Esmeralda*, which arrived at Manila, reported that after the Charleston left the island in June, the Spaniards refused to recognize the authority of Francis Portusach, and Jose Sisto, a former public administrator, was declared governor. He armed part of the native guards, collected a tax of \$6 a man and secreted fifteen tons of powder and a small stock of other ammunition when the island was taken by the Americans.

Francis Portusach, whom the officers of the United States cruiser *Charleston* left in charge of the island of Guam, being the only American citizen there, is a native of Barcelona, Spain, where he was born about thirty years ago. He took out his citizenship papers in Chicago during the year 1888. Portusach came to Chicago in 1886. He was the son of a wealthy merchant of Barcelona, Spain, who had numerous trading vessels in the Philippines and other islands of the South Seas. While a boy Portusach traveled considerably on his father's ships.



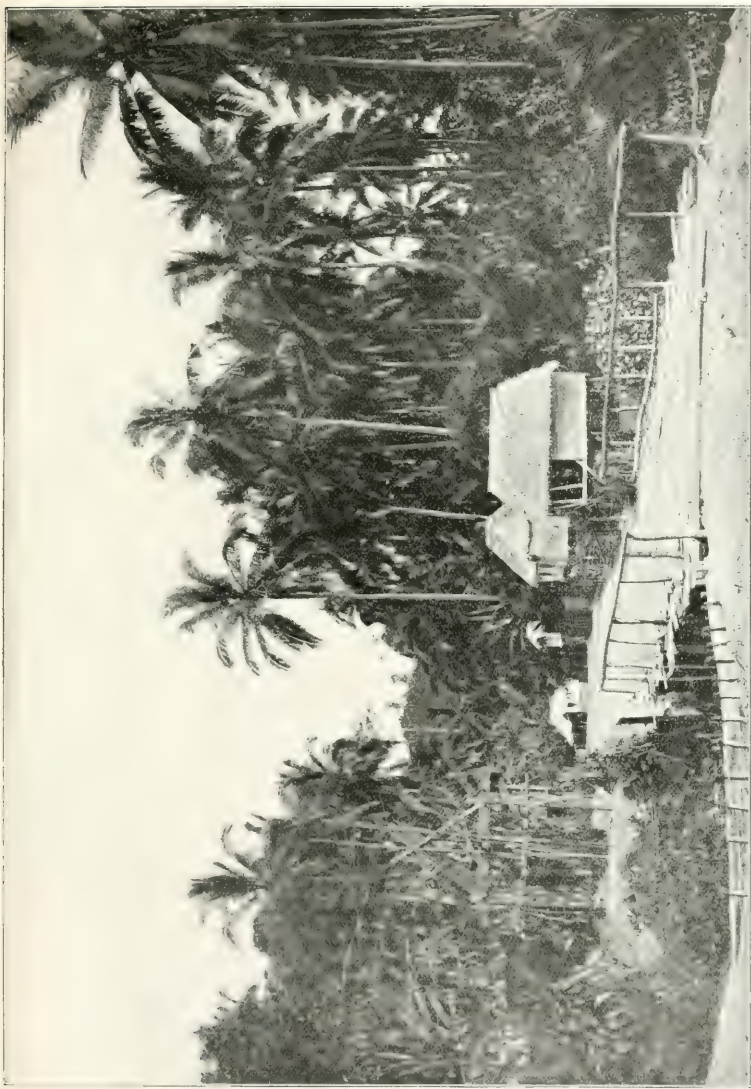
THEATRICAL PERFORMANCE NEAR MANILA

The drama has its devotees in the Philippines the same as elsewhere, and the Spanish theaters in Manila provide European plays and operas, while the natives find much of their entertainment in open-air theaters like the one illustrated.



TROPICAL VEGETATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

Nature takes strange forms in the tropics, and with everything in her favor, flowers far more luxuriantly than in our northern climes. Watered by this picturesque mountain stream, the foliage of this vicinity grow in a tangle, without interruption or cultivation



PEASANT HOMES IN THE INTERIOR OF LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The gorgeous luxuriance of tropical vegetation is well shown in the accompanying illustration. Coconut palms grow on every hand and here and there are nature's best gift to the people of these islands. The nuts provide food and drink. The trees afford grateful shade. From the leafy natives weave clothing, mats and wall hangings for their houses, which often are built of the trees and thatched with the same back or the great leaves. The coconut palm has been called aptly. "The Giraffe of Vegetation."



MORO WOMEN IN THE ISLAND OF MINDANAO.

These are woman of that unconquered Mohammedan tribe so famous in Philippine history.



FISHERMEN OF ILOILO, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

It is not merely because they are near the water, with the prospect of a bath, that this group is so lightly clad. Filipino custom does not demand any more elaborate toilet.

After his father's death and before he had reached his majority Francis Portusach left home, which had been made unbearable by the tyranny of an elder brother. He shipped as a sailor before the mast, and visited all parts of the globe, finally landing in America. Soon after he became a citizen of the United States he left Chicago and went to the Pacific coast. He was there lost track of by his Chicago friends, but it was known he intended to sail for the South Seas and finally return home and claim the fortune left by his father.

While the governor of Guam was having trouble with his constituents, the administration in the United States was arranging plans for his release and the development of the latent resources of the colony. On December 23 orders were sent to Commander Taussig of the Bennington at Honolulu to proceed with all dispatch to the Ladrone islands, and assume possession, in the name of the United States, of all property on the island of Guam which belonged to the Spanish crown.

**TAKING FORMAL
POSSESSION
OF GUAM.**

Plans were made to establish such works as would be necessary for the creation of a naval station for United States vessels, and it was decided to begin work as promptly as possible.

A few days later Captain Richard P. Leary, U. S. N., received official orders of his assignment as naval governor of Guam.

Captain Leary is the third officer from Charlestown under orders to go to that place. Lieutenant-Colonel Pope is to command the marine garrison force, with First Lieutenant Long, U. S. M. C., as his assistant. The greater portion of the marine detail will also go from this station, nearly fifty men now being included in the list of volunteers who have asked for duty with the detachment.

It is evident that there is going to be a great boom at Guam, a boom such as never was known before anywhere in that part of the world, for the secretary of the navy is about to make a contract with a New York firm for the construction of an extensive and complete naval station, including repair shops, barracks, supply station, arsenal, coaling docks and the most modern and convenient facilities for loading, unloading and repairing ships. The first contract will amount to about \$300,000, and as all the material and the men will have to be

taken from this country by steamer, every inch of the timber and all the machinery and tools and even the fuel and 500 or 600 workmen, marines and mechanics, the population of the island will be doubled and its wealth will be increased in a degree beyond all precedent. There are between 600 and 700 souls on the island of Guam, all told. Most of them are natives. The remainder are human driftwood that has stranded there during the last two or three centuries and grown up with the country. Among the other buildings called for by the specifications is a building that will furnish suitable quarters for a marine guard of 500 men, but the most expensive piece of work will be an iron pier nearly a mile long.

Second Lieutenant P. H. Mullan of the Fourteenth Infantry was with the first expedition to Manila and relates interesting incidents connected with his journey. In a letter to his brother Lieutenant Mullan says:

"I suppose you want to hear all about the great battle of Guam. Well, we came around the northern part of the island very early yesterday morning, June 20. The Charleston went into the bay and fired a shot at the fort, but it did not answer. Soon, however, a boat came from shore bringing a representative of the governor, who made the most profuse apologies for not answering the salute and giving as the reason that he had no powder. That's all, so far, of the battle of Guam. The governor's representative was informed of the existence of war and that they would have to surrender and come on board next day at 9 o'clock; also that if they made any resistance we would sack the town. They did not come at the appointed time, so some marines from the Charleston and some Oregon troops from the Australia were loaded into boats. Seeing this, the Spaniards agreed to come.

"Shortly after dinner I went up on the bridge and saw the Charleston signal with a lantern that they would send the prisoners on board our ship. They came aboard shortly afterward, six officers and fifty-four men. The governor, his secretary and surgeon were in white, the rest—officers and men—wore a light-weight cotton uniform, with fine white and blue stripes. The enlisted men wore large, very light chip hats, white cotton shirts and underwear. They are well built, small and

**WHAT A SOLDIER
SAW IN THE
LADRONES.**

very lean. They draw \$3 a month, Mexican money, from the government, but had not been paid for a year and a half, yet they all had money. I'll bet they are quite surprised with the treatment they are receiving. The officers live the same as we do and the enlisted men the same as our enlisted men. The enlisted men seem very well pleased with their captivity. There is only one American on the island. He hails from Chicago, I believe. He is married to a native woman who is rather nice looking. He has run in lots of 'joshing' on the natives, and now I suppose he will put himself up as governor. There are a few Spanish civilians in the capital, but it is five miles inland and I did not get to it. There is a Catholic priest on each island and the rest are all natives. All are Catholics.

"This morning we took a boat and rowed in against a strong head wind and tide to a native village. It was a very interesting sight. We had to go way round to get clear of the coral reefs, which we could distinguish by the green color of the water. They had a little covered passageway with steps leading up out of the water for a landing. The first house on the left was the home of the American resident, where we stopped and got a drink of gin, which was awfully strong. All the houses are either adobe or wooden structures, bamboo, cane or something or other. I won't go into architecture, for fear of being called down. The living room is generally large, with tables, chairs, benches, etc. The floors and a good part of the other woodwork is mahogany, worn very smooth. On the walls are sacred pictures, and boards swung from the ceilings serve as shelves. Off from this room over the archway and to the rear are the bed-rooms, pantries, etc. In the bed-rooms were little altars, with the everlasting lamp burning, sacred pictures and some candles. The better classes had nice bedsteads of mahogany, with mattresses, blankets and pillows covered with clean pillow cases. They generally have a woven mat over the mattresses, as it would be too warm otherwise, for the mat allows the air to circulate underneath.

**HOUSES AND
FURNITURE
IN GUAM.**

"At the end of the street was the church, a typical tropical mission church, with a large wooden cross in front and a bell on the side. There was no furniture inside, except the lamp, a little altar and railing.

The people kneel on the bare earthen floor. The natives are very pleasant people and were glad to see us. They seemed very much pleased at getting rid of the Spaniards. They are rather small and slim people, but not thin, with graceful carriage and good chests. The women and children have very pretty voices and are very modest without being shy."

The most important feature of Commander Taussig's orders in sailing for Guam directed him to find Wake island, 2,000 miles west of Honolulu and 1,300 miles east of Guam. He was to take possession of this lonely spot in mid-ocean and formally annex it to the United States. This island was discovered a score of years ago by Commander Wilkes while on a surveying expedition. It is uninhabited, but a few acres in extent, but it has an excellent harbor, which may be found useful some day as a coaling base, and it is admirably situated for a cable station to break the 3,300-mile stretch between Honolulu and Guam, which, on account of its exceeding length, would make a submarine cable very difficult, if not impossible, to operate.

The island of Kusaie, or Strong's island, which the United States wants to secure as a coaling and cable station, lies in the mid-Pacific.

Many of the Carolines and nearly all the other islands in this part of the Pacific are coral islands—mere strips of land lying on the ocean's bosom like a curved ribbon. But Kusaie is almost round, with high hills and

a great variety of vegetation. There are creeks and small lakes nestling in between the hills; great caves stretch back from the seashore, and in those caves thousands of bats sleep at daytime. Their rushing out at sunset is like the roaring of escaping wind. All around the island, except opposite the harbor mouths, is a line of coral reef, where the sea-breakers are broken into smaller waves that cannot do the damage on shore that would be wrought by the open sea if it ever reached the beach.

If the proposed coaling station is built it will undoubtedly be on the north and west side of Weather harbor. At this point there is a broad stretch of comparatively low, level ground, and water for drinking purposes could be piped from the little lakes up among the hills, if the creeks emptying into the bay did not supply enough. One cannot

expect an island only eight miles in diameter to have any great water supply, but for the purposes of a cable and coaling station there is a sufficiency, and of a quality much better to the taste than the water found on most of the salt-sea islands. There are natives on the island, of course, for even the smallest islet in the Pacific has inhabitants, but only about 200 of them occupy this beautiful "paradise of the Pacific."

The mission station, conducted by the American board of missions, is on the side of the island opposite Weather harbor, and about two miles from Morning Star harbor, so named for a missionary vessel that was wrecked there. The mission station is not maintained altogether for the sake of teaching Christianity to the native Kusaiens, but comprises two mission schools for islanders from other groups. Each year a class goes out, and a new class enters from the Gilbert islands, 800 miles southeast, while another class comes from the Marshall islands, which lie about the same distance due east. The schools are placed at this distant point on account of the unfitness of the climate in the Gilbert and Marshall groups. Many white missionaries have died in these two groups, and now the American board sends no more white teachers or preachers to the Gilbert and Marshall islands. Weather harbor and Lee harbor, a larger and safer bay than Morning Star harbor and close to the latter, have been connected in late years by a road cut through the forest by the male scholars in the mission school.

**MISSION
SCHOOLS FOR THE
NATIVES.**

The vegetation of the island is very luxuriant, tropical, of course, but not of the kind one expects to find so near the equator. No poisonous snakes lurk among the tall, stiff roots of the pandanus trees that grow in the sandy soil near the beach, or hide among the long banana leaves that have fallen to the ground, and one may follow his nose through the forest without fear of danger. Ferns grow to enormous size, and on a small point of a hill that runs boldly down almost to the bay near Lee harbor is a fern tree. Near the shores of the island, on all sides, are groves of mangrove trees that shelter in the daytime great numbers of large bats. The mangrove forests are so dense that at mid-day it seems like evening to one underneath the spreading branches.

Back among the hills grows an abundance of bread fruit, limes, yams, mangoes, sugar cane and cocoanuts, and fourteen varieties of bananas. The natives eat these bananas baked, boiled, fried and raw, and the women missionaries have learned to get up very palatable meals of bananas alone. The fruit grows in many varieties, some red, some yellow, and there are even "sour" and "sweet" bananas.

Sailing ships from Honolulu generally spend about five weeks making the voyage to Kusaie. Steam vessels often make it in three weeks, or even less time. In the early days, when sperm whales were thick in the Pacific, whalers used to stop at Kusaie to repair ship, take on fresh water to fill their empty hogsheads for the cruise home and get a change of diet for the crews. All vessels as a rule make for Lee harbor, because ships in Weather harbor are often unable for many weeks at a time to get out if they depend upon sail alone. The wind blows straight into Weather harbor most of the time, and the entrance is too narrow to permit tacking ship when outward bound.

Once, during the latter part of the civil war, there were four Yankee whaling ships wind-bound in Weather harbor. The captains met one afternoon and arranged a plan by which to combine strength of boat crews and tow one another out of the harbor mouth on the first good day, each captain then to sail around to Lee harbor, and be joined later by the boat crews, who should come around the island if they failed to get aboard the last ship towed out. But at the close of the conference a steamer was seen approaching the harbor mouth. It entered and anchored, flying the Confederate flag. It was the privateer *Shenandoah*, looking for Yankee ships. Captain Waddell of the privateer rowed in

**WORK OF A
CONFEDERATE
PRIVATEER.**

his gig to each of the whalers, received their surrender and carried off their chronometers. Later in the day, when the ships had been deserted by their crews, who were allowed to carry off what they could at one load, the *Shenandoah's* boat crews went around and took what they wanted of personal property. Then Captain Waddell sent word for Mr. Snow, the good old American missionary, to come over and see a show.

Mr. Snow obeyed the summons, and, standing on the beach with the poor crews of the four whaling ships, saw the four whaling ships, some loaded with oil and some only oil-soaked from previous voyages,

burning at night on the still bay. The blackened ribs of those ships still lie in the muddy bottom of the harbor, and can be seen as one is carried over them in a Kusaian canoe.

Next day Captain Waddell, expressing some interest in the good behavior of the Kusaiens he had seen, asked to see the mission schools. Mr. Snow took him around. There were three schools, and at each school Mr. Snow, having heard the captain say before starting that he would like to hear some music, had the scholars sing one of their sacred songs that had been set to the tune of "John Brown." As Captain Waddell remarked, he had heard more Yankee music that day than in all his previous war experience.

The Carolines are an archipelago extending through nearly thirty degrees of latitude and six degrees of longitude. They lie south of the Ladrone islands, north of New Guinea and east of the Philippines. Although the United States has taken no title to this group, yet its proximity to our other island possessions makes it interesting to us. The Spanish administration of the island has been very oppressive. The Pelew islands are properly known as a separate group, although they are included in the administration of the Carolines. They are the most eastern group of the Caroline archipelago. The islands are poor in products and population and severely oppressed by the Spaniards. The people are of a lower type than those of the Ladrone. The two most important islands of the Carolines are Ponape and Yap, the former the seat of the vice-governor of the entire archipelago and the latter the center of government for the East Carolines. The islands have been a mission field for the Protestants for many years until 1890, during General Weyler's administration in the Philippines. At that time the law of the Philippines prohibiting Protestant missionaries was applied to the Carolines and since that time the work has been interrupted.

**PROTESTANTS
EXPULSED FROM
CAROLINES.**

Both the Ladrone and the Carolines are peculiarly favored in respect to climate and soil. The temperature is mild and equable almost to a fault. In the Ladrone it varies from 70 degrees to 80 degrees Fahrenheit, and in the Carolines from 74 degrees to 84 degrees. The native population, moreover, is passionately attached to the country

and flag of their beloved teachers, the Americans. Therefore there is no danger of a "native problem" arising like that found in the Philippines. The soil of all the larger islands is of inexhaustible fertility, well watered, and yields all tropical and sub-tropical products in profusion. Among these may be mentioned rice, maize, taro, sugar, tobacco, cotton, indigo; besides fruit, such as cocoanuts, breadfruit, bananas, oranges, pineapples. Deer, cattle and swine have been introduced in the western islands and run wild in the mountains, where the waters swarm with fish and turtle.

The recent declaration by the president of the German Colonial Society that the proposed acquisition of these islands by Germany is "rather a naval than a commercial measure" emphasizes another important aspect of the matter. Mr. Foreman, who has spent most of his life in the Philippines and adjacent lands, declares that the port of Apra (San Louis d'Apra), in the island of Guam, where the American coaling station is to be established, is merely a "creek," and that vessels must be two miles off shore; and hydrographic office chart No. 1748 confirms this statement, showing it to be merely an open roadstead,

**IF WE ONLY
HAD THE
CAROLINES.**

almost entirely filled with coral patches. The Carolines, with splendid harbors at Yap and Ponape, are the key to the western Pacific, in the same manner and for the same reasons that Hawaii is the key to the eastern Pacific. They have been the headquarters of the whaling fleet for many years. They are on the direct route between South America, or Cape Horn, and central or southern Asia; between Australia, New Zealand, Fiji, Samoa, or Tahiti, and China or Japan; when the canal is opened they will lie on the direct route to and from almost any port in the western Pacific, and they flank the route between San Francisco and Manila for 2,000 miles.

Of our island relationships in the remote Pacific, it remains but to speak of the famous harbor of Pango-Pango in the Samoan islands. This harbor was given to the United States government many years ago by the Samoans and coal sheds were erected there. Fifteen years ago 3,000 tons of coal were sent in a schooner from Philadelphia and landed at Pango-Pango, where sheds were built over it. Most of this fuel has already been used by American warships. On account of the



WOMAN OF BATANGAS, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

The Province of Batangas is one of the most fruitful of the Islands, sugar-cane being one of the principal products. The native woman in the picture is leaning against a stack of sugar cane.



AGRICULTURE IN THE PHILLIPINE ISLANDS.

This scene in the province of Batangas shows the manner of ploughing most usual. The farmer is a native Filipino of Mount Sungay, and the bull is one of a native breed much favored for field work.

difficulties of transporting it from the shore to the ships by means of small lighters, however, the locality was not popular with naval officers as a base of supplies, although every official report from commanders visiting the harbor were enthusiastic in recommendations of its improvement and maintenance by the United States. Congress appropriated \$100,000 in 1892 to take advantage of the Samoan concession, and all surveys were made for the wharf and the defense of the site at that time, but more than half the money was expended for coal, and the lowest bid for the structural work and pier approximating \$70,000 it was impossible to let the contract, and since that time congress has been too apathetic to make further appropriations.

The navy department has, however, discovered an unused appropriation of \$200,000 made in general terms for a coaling station in the Pacific with the intention that it should be spent at Pearl harbor, and this will now be taken as an emergency measure for Pango-Pango.

The specifications under the contract, which will soon be closed, provide for a pier head 256 feet long and 48 feet wide in 40 feet of water, with a wharf 208 feet long connecting it with the shore. The structure will be entirely of steel and of a most substantial character. Its piles will be solid rolled or forged steel, eight inches in diameter and provided with screw points three feet in diameter to secure a firm hold in the sand and coral bed of the harbor, which is 200 feet deep a few hundred feet away from the pier head.

Ashore there will be two coal sheds constructed wholly of steel upon heavy concrete floors 150 feet long by 100 feet wide. A narrow-gauge railway with double track will run from all parts of the pier to the upper part of the coal sheds, and the contract calls for twenty-four two-ton self-dumping cars and the cables and machinery to operate them. The contract also provides for the erection of a substantial dwelling and a large storehouse. The entire establishment is to be completed within twelve months under a penalty of \$100 a day. The land immediately back of the coal sheds rises to a level of 160 feet, and here it is proposed to mount several heavy guns.

**PANGO-PANGO,
THE SAMOAN
COALING STATION.**

The great advantages to be gained by the possession of this station are evident from a glance at the map of the Pacific ocean. It is

situated exactly 4,160 miles from San Francisco and 4,012 miles from Yokohama, the distance between Yokohama and San Francisco being 4,791 miles. Pango-Pango is 2,263 miles from Honolulu, the latter American port being just about the same distance from San Francisco. The island of Guam, in the Ladrones, is barely 3,000 miles from Samoa, and Manila is just 4,000 miles away. One or more American gunboats will start for Samoa soon, going by way of Cape Horn, and will display the American flag there until relieved by other vessels. These gunboats were built specially for duty in the Pacific, but were detained on the eastern coast of the United States when the war began. One of them, the *Helena*, accompanied the *Oregon* on her famous cruise from California to Cuba and will probably be the first to reach Samoa.

The Samoan islands are under a peculiar form of government, which may be responsible for international complications. By the treaty of Berlin the United States, England and Germany united in a tripartite agreement to maintain the integrity of the islands by a joint protectorate. The city of Apia itself, the capital, was withdrawn from the rule of the native king of the islands and placed under the administration of a consular board composed of the consuls of those three nations and certain civic officers appointed by them. The remainder of the territory of the islands, however, remained under the authority of the native king.

Germany having the largest commercial interests in the islands, there has always been jealousy and an effort on the part of Germany to dominate affairs. The natives, however, execrate the Germans and are fond of Americans, so that the threatened attempt of the European nation to seize the whole of the group is likely to be the cause of considerable diplomatic correspondence, and certainly is doomed to final defeat.

CHAPTER XX.

WAR AND PEACE IN THE PHILIPPINES.

First Battle between Americans and Insurgents—A Desperate Engagement in the Night—Shells from the Men-of-War—Advance of the American Forces—Slaughter of Filipinos—Capture of the Water Works—Affairs in the United States During the Days of Fighting—Ratification of the Peace Treaty—Conditions of Warfare Around Manila—Frequent Skirmishes—Warships Shell the Insurgents—Americans Suffer from the Heat—A Fight Near Iloilo—Agoncillo Flees from Washington to Montreal—Divisions in the United States Senate.

THE first outbreak of hostilities between the Filipino insurgent forces and the American troops in the archipelago occurred at Manila on the night of Saturday, February 4. It was 8:30 o'clock when three venturesome Filipinos ran past the pickets of the First Nebraska Volunteers at Santa Mesa. They were challenged, and retired without replying. Once more they tried the experiment, were challenged and thrust back beyond the picket line. A third time they approached the Cossack picket maintained by the Americans at that point. Corporal Greely challenged them and then opened fire, killing one and wounding another.

These shots aroused the insurgent line, stretching from Caloocan, near the bay, north of Manila, to Santa Mesa, in the rear of the city, and a fusillade was started at many points. The pickets of the First Nebraska, the First North Dakota and the First Montana regiments replied vigorously, and hot work began. The American outposts, however, held their ground until reinforcements arrived. At 9 o'clock the Filipinos attempted to rush the lines, and almost broke through the wavering pickets and breathless detachments which had hurried to their support. The Americans, however, grew stronger every minute. The artillery joined in the melee and soon from the bay Admiral Dewey's warships began to shell the insurgent positions. The Filipinos then concentrated their forces at three points, Caloocan, Gagalangin and Santa Mesa.

At 1 o'clock in the morning the insurgents opened a hot fire from the three points simultaneously. This was supplemented by the fire of two siege guns at Balik-Balik and by advancing their skirmishers at Paco and Pardacan. The Americans replied by a heavy fire, but in the darkness they could have little knowledge of its effect.

**INSURGENTS
MAKE A
HOT ATTACK.**

The Utah light artillery at last succeeded in silencing the siege guns of the Filipinos. The Third artillery was pounding away at the flashes of fire showing the insurgent positions on the extreme left. The engagement lasted over an hour. During much of the time the United States cruiser Charleston and the gunboat Concord, stationed off Malabon, hammered with the rapid-fire guns of their secondary batteries upon the insurgent position at Caloocan. At 2:45 in the morning there was another fusillade along the entire line. By this time the United States monitor Monadnock was in position south of Manila and opened fire on the insurgent line near Malate.

When daylight came the Americans advanced. The First California and the First Washington infantry made a splendid charge and drove the insurgents from the villages of Pato and Santa Mesa. The Nebraska regiment also distinguished itself, capturing several prisoners and one howitzer and a very strong position at the reservoir which is connected with the Manila water works. The Twentieth Kansas and the Dakota regiments compelled the enemy's right flank to retire to Caloocan. Firing continued throughout Sunday at various points. The American losses at the end of the battle were approximately 50 killed and 200 wounded. It was impossible to do more than estimate the losses of the Filipinos.

All day Monday, burial parties were busy interring the dead who fell during the fighting on Saturday night and Sunday. Hundreds of dead Filipinos were found in the rice fields and were buried on the spots where they were found. The most conservative calculation placed the loss of the Filipinos at 1,000 dead and 2,000 wounded.

**HEAVY LOSSES
OF
THE FILIPINOS.**

Late Monday afternoon, General Hale's brigade advanced and took the water works at Singalon. Four companies of the Nebraska regiment and a part of the Utah battery with two field guns and two

Hotchkiss guns met the enemy on the hill a half mile out and a sharp engagement took place, in which the Nebraskans lost four men. The Filipinos were driven back, retiring in bad order. General Ovenshine's brigade advanced and took Paranaque, capturing two field guns. General McArthur's division advanced beyond Gagalangin without loss, the enemy retreating upon Caloocan.

The action of the Filipinos in bringing on a conflict, stimulated to prompt action those United States senators who had been in doubt on the treaty question, thereby accomplishing a purpose diametrically opposed to what the insurgents desired. The treaty of peace negotiated in Paris by the American and Spanish commissioners, was ratified by the senate on Monday afternoon, February 6, the vote being fifty-seven to twenty-seven, or just one more than the two-thirds majority required. The tension had been great in the senate and there was considerable doubt whether or not ratification would be carried. The country, however, was gratified that the senate took this action, believing that the time to settle questions as to our disposition of the Philippines was after we had safely taken care of our own treaty of peace. On the same day, Senator McEnery of Louisiana, who was on the doubtful list but finally landed on the ratification side, offered a resolution declaring that there was no intention on the part of the United States to annex the Philippine islands or admit their population to citizenship; that after we had prepared them for self-government we would dispose of them as will be best for their welfare and ours. This resolution went over for action at a later date.

**THE MCENERY
RESOLUTION
INTRODUCED.**

By the night of Tuesday, after three days and nights of intermittent fighting, the insurgent forces had been driven back ten miles to the east and south of Manila and five miles to the north where they still had lodgment in the vicinity of Malabon. The advances of the American troops had never once been checked, the enemy being scattered like rabbits. First the canebrakes in front of advanced positions were shelled and as the lurking rebels broke from cover to seek safer quarters, they were raked with a withering cross-fire from the rifles of the Americans, who then advanced in irresistible charges.

The Filipinos did their shooting almost exclusively from behind

trenches, or from ambushes in the thickets, except that sharpshooters in the treetops were kept busy. The Filipinos wasted a vast quantity of ammunition, but they almost invariably shot too high, so that while the killed and wounded on the American side made a distressingly long list, the escape of the troops from an appalling slaughter, considering the intrenchments everywhere, the junglelike growths of vegetation suitable for ambushes, and the short range firing from native huts, was almost miraculous.

On the side of the rebels the dead had literally fallen in heaps. There were swarms of armed men everywhere in front of the American

**CHILDREN AND
OLD MEN IN
THE TRENCHES.**

lines when the fighting began. Tottering old men and little boys, armed only with knives, huddled in the trenches with the native riflemen, and many of these—how many will probably never be known—

were shot down along with the more formidable warriors.

Caloocan became the scene of fighting as the Filipinos were driven farther from the city. On the evening of February 7, Lieutenant A. C. Alford of the Twentieth Kansas infantry and a private of that company were killed and six others of the regiment were wounded while reconnoitering. The party was in a jungle when it was attacked by the enemy. Two companies of the Kansas regiment were sent to the relief of their comrades and drove the Filipinos into Caloocan, penetrating to the very heart of the town. Meanwhile gunboats shelled the suburbs. General Otis finally recalled the troops, but the natives misunderstanding the retreat, failed to take advantage of it. The outskirts of the town were burned. Two days later another conflict occurred at Caloocan. General McArthur's forces lying north of the Pasig river was swung into the town and routed the Filipinos after a lively battle. Before the men were in the field, however, shells were thrown from the guns of Admiral Dewey's ships for a full half-hour. The natives were badly demoralized and had lost heavily before the real fighting began. The American land forces were hurried forward at 3:40 in the afternoon and within two hours the enemy were utterly routed and the village was reduced to ashes.

The next stronghold where the insurgents made a stand was Malabon, out of which place they were driven by the American troops

on February 11, setting fire to the town as they retreated. The monitor *Monadnock* and the cruiser *Charleston* shelled the insurgent outposts and drove them toward the mountains, while the American column was advancing. In the attack the American army suffered a loss of two killed and nine wounded, the insurgent loss was heavy. After the retreat of the insurgent forces, plans showing a meditated attack upon Manila were discovered.

**MEN-OF-WAR
SHELL
THE INSURGENTS.**

Fighting before Manila was now interrupted for a few days, except for unimportant skirmishes between outposts of the opposing armies. The American authorities in Manila, however, had quite enough to do to guard the city from threatened uprisings. It was believed at one time that there was a plan to burn the city and many alleged conspirators were arrested. It was well understood that the people of the city and the suburban villages were in sympathy with the insurgents and would take any chance to assist them.

On February 14, some of the rebels having taken possession of houses near the outposts, a skirmish followed and nine men in a California regiment before the enemy were driven out. Then a gunboat shelled the villages and the jungle, driving the Filipinos toward the famous lake, Laguna de Bay. By this time the American outposts were extended to a position twelve miles beyond the city. Another skirmish occurred on the Tarrquina road on February 18, in which some twenty Americans were killed and wounded. A day later word came that the California volunteers had abandoned Guadalupe church, setting it on fire, and retired to San Pedro Macati. The rebels still held the country in the vicinity of Guadalupe, Pasig and Paterno, despite the efforts of the gunboats to dislodge them from the jungle on both sides of the river.

The heat was intense and increasing daily, so that the American soldiers were suffering greatly from the weather to which they were not accustomed. There was a daily list of casualties cabled to the war department by Major-General Otis and the list of killed, wounded, and those dying from disease grew steadily.

**CASUALTIES TO
THE AMERICAN
FORCES.**

At Iloilo conditions were equally strained, but hostilities had not progressed to such an extent. After weeks of waiting in the harbor

General Miller finally disembarked his forces in the face of the insurgents' protest and occupied the city. On February 12, General Miller ordered a reconnoissance in force to ascertain the enemy's position. Between Iloilo and Molo and beyond no hostile forces were encountered, but midway between Iloilo and Jaro a large body of the enemy was encountered, occupying both sides of the road. They met the advance of the American troops with a severe and well directed fire. The Americans deployed and returned the fire with a number of volleys. Supported by the Hotchkiss and Gatling guns the enemy was driven through Jaro to the open country beyond. The Americans lost four men slightly wounded, the insurgent loss was severe.

While the American army was moving against the insurgents in the Philippines, the Filipinos were not without their supporters in the United States. Agoncillo and his fellow-members of the Filipino embassy left Washington for Montreal the night before the first news of hostilities was received in the United States. It was evident that he had been warned by cable of Aguinaldo's intentions. From that time he made his headquarters in the Canadian city, keeping in touch with the Filipino Junta in Paris, London and Hongkong.

The policy which had been adopted toward the Filipinos met with strenuous opposition from a large and influential class in the United States. The McEnery resolution passed the United States senate, declaring our ultimate purpose was not to annex the Filipinos. It became

DIVIDED OPINIONS evident that the sentiment of the country was by no means unanimous for annexation. The military operations which had resulted in the death of thousands of Filipinos who sincerely believed they were fighting for the freedom of their country, aroused a great deal of feeling.

In the United States senate the fight was strenuous against the ratification of the treaty of peace, and when that carried, the effort became equally strong on the part of those who wished to adopt new policies in the settlement of affairs with the Filipinos. Some senators maintained that the Filipinos had a right to their freedom, and that all the bloodshed would have been averted if a more generous policy had been pursued toward them.



A NATIVE OF THE CAROLINE ISLANDS

This is one island group which has been left to Spain in the final settlement of terms of peace.



NATIVE MAN AND WOMAN OF THE
NEW ECIAJA

In the tropics, where influence of civilization has not been too strong, clothes are still worn for utilitarian purposes only.



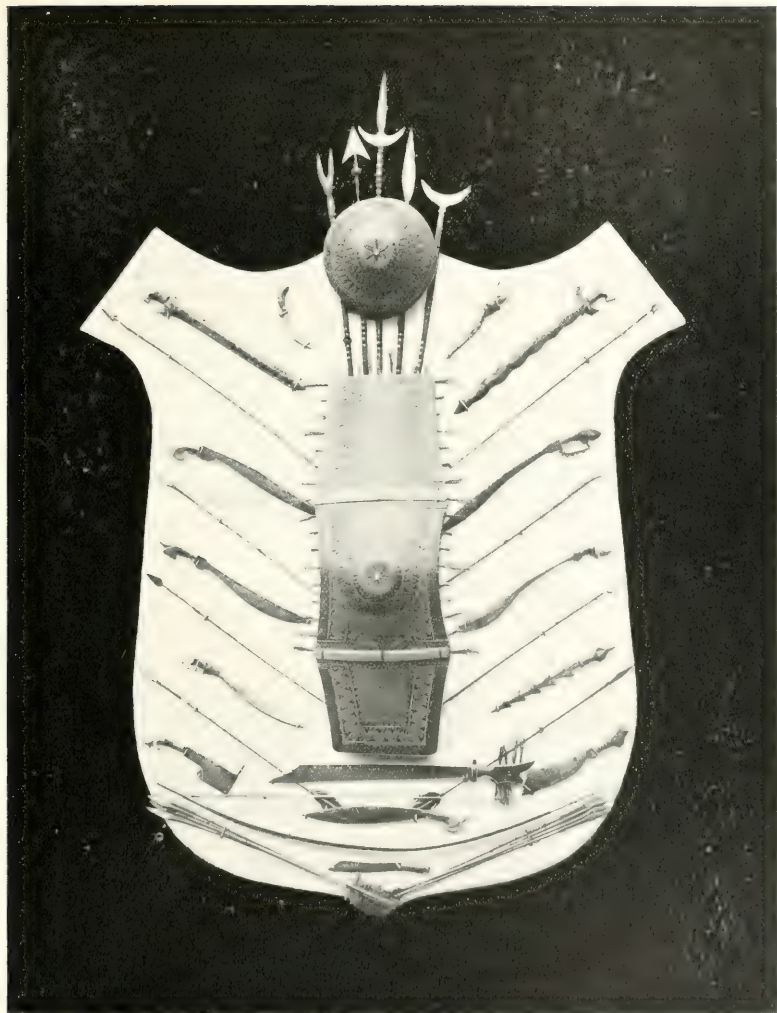
GRINDING CORN FOR BREAD, LUZON

Natives of the Philippines depend on this sort of implements instead of gristmills for their flour and meal.



NATIVE CHIEFS OF MINDANAO, PHILIPPINES

This island, second in size of all the Archipelago, is still largely under the sway of native rulers.



MORO WEAPONS FROM MINDANAO.

As related in detail in this volume, the weapons of the Moros are designed for service and are most effective in the hands of a fighter. A Malay sailor "running amuck" with a "kris" or waved dagger, is to be avoided energetically.



NATIVE HUT NEAR CALAMBA, LAGUNA PROVINCE.



FILIPINO LABORERS STRIPPING BAMBOO

This picture is from a photograph taken near the active volcano of Taal in the Island of Luzon.

Book II.

Puerto Rico.



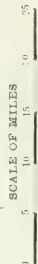
A T L A N T I C

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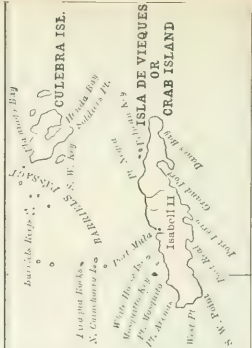
C A R I B B E A N

PUERTO RICO.

Specialty engraved for this work from the latest surveys with corrections by the author.



— Roads —
— Railroad —
— Boundaries —



“THE HEALTHIEST OF THE ANTILLES.”

DIRECTLY south of Nova Scotia, and, consequently, farther east than the extremest point of the United States of America, lies the island of Puerto Rico, guarding the northeastern gate to the Caribbean sea. The proud distinction that it holds as the healthiest of the Antilles has been won during centuries of Spanish rule and consequent carelessness of sanitary measures. If its natural wholesomeness be fortified by such scientific sanitation as may be expected under American dominance, all the more will this characterization become a correct one.

The geographical location of Puerto Rico is as favorable as could be conceived for the development of commerce, agriculture and all else that go to make up modern civilization. To nothing but Spanish rule can be charged the primitive conditions of the beautiful island and its backward place in history and in the affairs of the world. Its situation at the northwestern extremity of the Windward islands, which bound the Caribbean sea upon the east, places it in the line of traffic from Europe to the ports of Central America. It is equally convenient as a port of call for steamers plying between the ports of the United States and Canada and those of the northern coast of South America. The

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF PUERTO RICO.

The distances of various ports from San Juan, the capital of Puerto Rico, are an excellent indication of the convenience which it has as a center of tropical commerce. From Baltimore to San Juan is 1,300 miles, from San Juan to New York 1,430, to Bermuda 850, to Halifax 1,600, to Barbados 500, to Plymouth 3,550, to Gibraltar 3,375, to British Guiana 850, to the mouth of the Amazon 1,650, to La Guayra, the port of Car-

acas, Venezuela, 650, to Colon on the isthmus of Panama 1,000, to Havana 1,000, and to Greytown the entrance to the Nicaragua canal, 1,100 miles.

Puerto Rico is situated in the torrid zone, on a latitude north of the equator corresponding closely in distance and in climate with that of the Hawaiian islands, Bombay and the northern part of the island of Luzon in the Philippines. It lies between latitude $17^{\circ} 54'$ and $18^{\circ} 31'$ north of the equator and between 66° and 68° of longitude west of Greenwich. The north Atlantic ocean sweeps its northern shores, the Caribbean sea its southern and eastern, while the Mona passage on the west separates it from the island of Haiti. It is the smallest of the four islands known as the Greater Antilles, Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica and Puerto Rico, containing within its dimensions—ninety-five miles long and thirty-five miles wide—an area of about 3,668 square miles, or a little less than half the area of the state of New Jersey.

It was necessary to be in the island of Puerto Rico last summer, meeting the people who would be expected to have all available knowledge of the place at their command, to appreciate the absolute poverty of information which existed concerning our newly acquired possession. The men who had gone to every source of facts that could be conceived, in order to prepare for the exigencies of the military campaign, either as army officers with one kind of responsibility or newspaper correspondents with another, were the frankest to admit that

**PUERTO RICO
A LITTLE-
KNOWN ISLAND.**

they knew virtually nothing about the people, the resources and the conditions of the colony. Furthermore, the most unreliable information that came to view was that printed in the north in newspapers and magazines of varying age which finally began to drift down to the island, which purported to tell about all things of Puerto Rico by those who offered themselves as authorities. Tourists who had made one cruise on a Quebec steamer from Halifax to Demarara, touching port at the various islands on the way, and who had talked for an hour with the purser, seemed to be taking advantage of the fact that interest in the West Indies was so general, to break into print with information accurate in inverse ratio to its presumption.

It would have been worth while to preface every editorial and every

news item about Puerto Rico with the injunction to wait for information which was yet to be gathered, before forming definite judgments on any essential matter. It was certain that there would be plenty of intelligent inquiry made in the island within the months to follow, to say nothing of much of the other kind, by those who were seeking information for themselves or others. The man with a desire to take advantage of the commercial or industrial opportunities that might be expected to open in Puerto Rico for Americans, would do very well to be cautious and wait the report of some investigation before sending any money to be invested for him in the island. If opportunities existed there were plenty of them and no one would be the sufferer by conservative delay. These were the opinions of every careful man on the ground.

When war was impending the bureau of military intelligence in Washington set to work to collate the available information and promptly discovered that there was nothing of sufficient accuracy of detail to be of value for military purposes of the invading army. Henry H. Whitney was a young lieutenant who had done good work in preparing certain reports on the armies of Europe and in constructing a military map of Cuba. He was detailed to the dangerous and responsible work of visiting Puerto Rico to obtain information for the army, and he carried out his instructions with energy and courage. He was in the island from the middle of April until the first of June, traversing it in many directions, visiting the towns and cities, mapping the harbors, and doing the other things naturally involved in such an undertaking. He passed as an English sailor, going everywhere without interruption or even suspicion until near the end, and no doubt would have been hanged as a spy if detected.

SEARCH FOR
MILITARY
INFORMATION.

After Lieutenant Whitney returned to Washington, he directed the preparation of the military map which was used by commanders of the army of invasion. In addition to that work he collated the information he had obtained, and it was published in a pamphlet entitled "Military Notes on Puerto Rico." It was issued by the military information division of the adjutant general's office and furnished to the army officers who might find it of service. For his work in this

matter, Whitney was made a captain and was attached to the personal staff of General Miles, in order that his knowledge of the island might be made available. He is a modest fellow, generous and gentlemanly in the best sense, and the information he obtained for the government in Puerto Rico was of great value to the military authorities.

When Captain Whitney was good enough to give me a copy of the document at my own request, he warned me that the difficulties under which the material had been gathered were responsible for many inaccuracies, against which I must guard in using what was printed there. Inasmuch as his name appears upon the book in no place as its author and as he is frank to recognize its deficiencies himself, there can be no affront in saying that the pamphlet is full of inaccuracies of the most glaring sort. Its misinformation becomes an embarrassment to one who uses it in any way as a guide. Brave as the undertaking was that furnished most of the matter, it was of little service except as a demonstration of the courage of Captain Whitney himself.

**BRAVERY OF
CAPTAIN HENRY
H. WHITNEY.**

His courtesy and his bravery were none the less because errors got into the book, and I reiterate these things concerning its unreliability merely as a demonstration of the fact that the sources of information at command during the time of Spanish dominance were of little value.

It proved necessary, if one wanted to know the facts about Puerto Rico, to search for them and examine them himself, and I cannot deny satisfaction in the opportunities afforded me which enabled me to traverse the island in many directions, not only during the period of campaigning, but after peace made pertinent inquiry possible. Until peace and the Americans came, there was little information at hand in any form sufficient to base judgment upon it as to the resources, the conditions and the characteristics of the island. My inquiries on those matters were almost those of the pioneer. The generous welcome which I had from citizens of all classes and of all nationalities, in every branch of commerce and industry, must be given the credit for whatever I was able to gather, and I am anxious to recognize thus frankly my indebtedness to them. Spanish officials, colonial officials and American officials

alike lent me their aid and their information, but it was the people themselves, in the industries of the island, who gave me the more essential assistance. Like Captain Whitney, I searched the books of travelers who had written in Spanish, in French, in German and in English on the island of Puerto Rico, whether in paragraphs or chapters, and like him I found most of such writings either many years out of date, or, if modern, egregiously inaccurate.

GATHERING
MATERIAL FOR
THIS VOLUME.

It is of this island that I am anxious to write what details of fact have come into my possession. It is to be an integral part of our own country, in some relationship yet undefined, and a general interest is rising among the people of the United States to know all things concerning it. Since my return from San Juan a few weeks ago, scores of letters have reached me from men in various lines of industry and commerce who have been anxious to know the details of island affairs. Within the limits of my time and my ability I have answered such letters. But it is impossible in such correspondence to be sufficiently explicit or comprehensive, and I have felt a justification for presenting the book to which these pages are an introduction, in this general interest which has been disclosed to me.

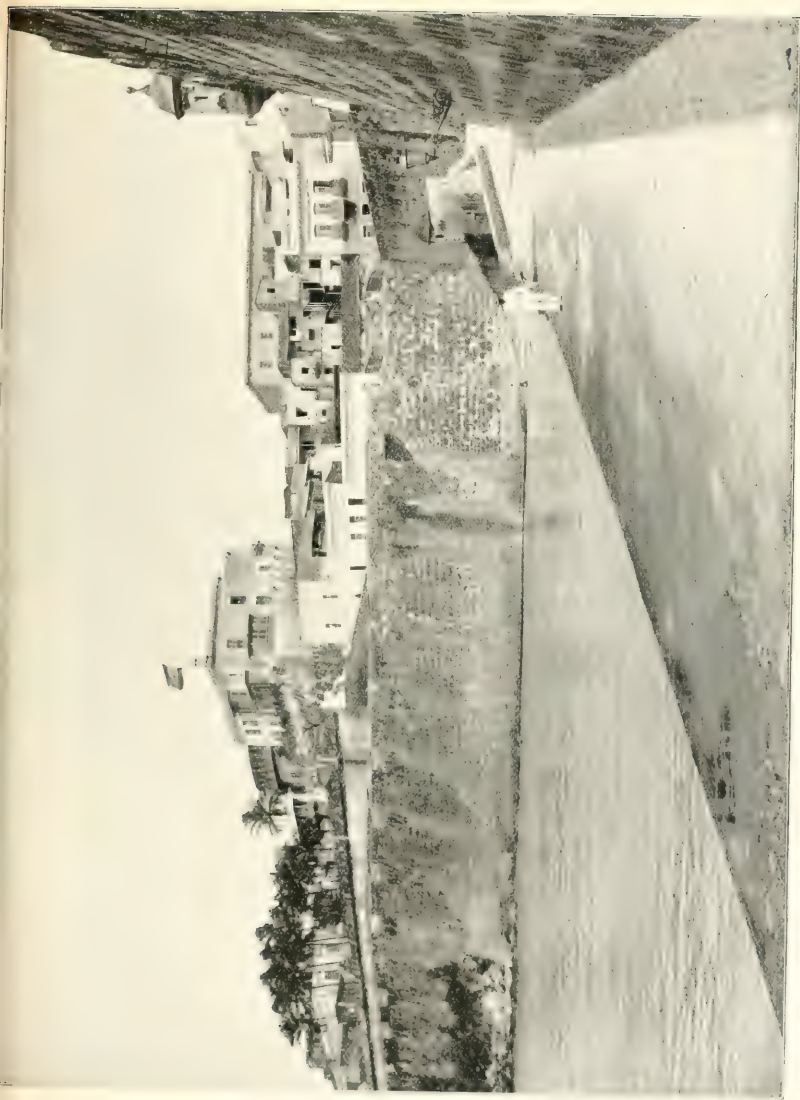
CHAPTER XXI.

PUERTO RICO IN HISTORY.

Career of This Island Less Eventful Than That of the Philippines and Cuba—Discovered by Columbus on His Second Voyage—Not Colonized Immediately—Ponce de Leon Invades the Island and Is Welcomed—Character of the Aborigines—Their Government, Domestic Life and Worship—The Spanish Conquest of the Island—Extermination of the Natives—Founding of San Juan—The Capital Besieged by Sir Francis Drake—Attacks by the British and the Dutch—Insurrections to Obtain Freedom—Abolishment of Slavery in the Island—Puerto Rico's Hope for Freedom by the Aid of the Cubans.

THE history of Puerto Rico is exceedingly short, measured by the events that have happened of sufficient consequence to record. Although it was discovered by Christopher Columbus upon his second voyage in 1493, yet so comparatively even and unbroken has been its career since that time, that it will not require many pages to relate the things usually classified as history. The Philippines have been the scene of constant warfare between the Spanish and the Moros. Cuba has every page of its history blotted by the dark deeds of the Spanish conquerors, resulting in insurrection after insurrection. Even our little island possession of Hawaii has a career more dramatic than that of Puerto Rico.

A great writer has said that that country, like that family, is happiest which has the least history. Wars are not to be envied, even though they are interesting. Puerto Rico has been enabled by the continuance of peace most of the time throughout the last few centuries, to develop her industries and multiply her prosperity as she could not have done under different conditions. With the handicap of Spanish government to overcome, this island, the fourth in size of the Greater Antilles, is to be congratulated for the degree of comfort attained. Nevertheless, there have been wars and rumors of wars to disturb the people, even before the American invasion of 1898, and they, with the



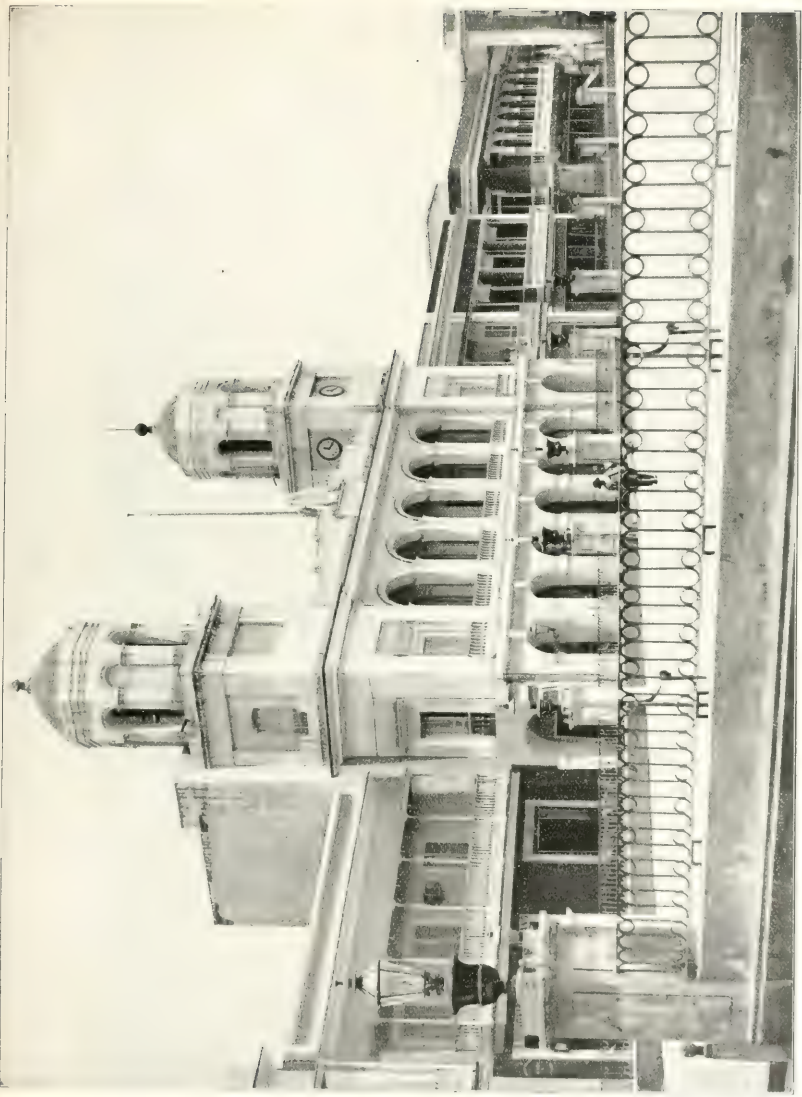
SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO, FROM THE SEA WALL

The ferry box shown in the extreme right of the picture, on the wall, and the embrasured fortification in the foreground and to the left, like the other defenses of San Juan, were almost obsolete when the city was taken. The house on which the flag is flying has been used by the Spanish explorer and former Governor of Puerto Rico.



CEMETERY, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

A peculiar feature of this ancient place of burial is the practice of removing the bodies from the graves where they have been interred, after a few years, and depositing the bones in vaults under the arches which appear in the background.



CITY HALL AND PUBLIC LIBRARY, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

The lower story of the building with the clock tower is occupied by an excellent public library, while the upper rooms are devoted to the municipal offices. It fronts upon the main plaza, where the military bands provide music for the people two or three evenings every week.



A HILLSIDE STREET IN SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

This picture gives a fair idea of architecture in one of the less pretentious streets. The little residence with steps leading to its front door, is directly opposite the famous Cathedral of San Juan, which is the oldest and finest in the island.

story of the development of island civilization, will contribute some paragraphs of importance.

Puerto Rico was discovered by Columbus himself on the 16th day of November, 1493. He first sighted land not far from Cape San Juan, where, 405 years later, a battle between Americans and Spanish, centering at the lighthouse, helped to make the history of our war. For three days he sailed along the northern coast of the island, westward bound, on his way to Santo Domingo, where he had planted a colony on his previous voyage. On the 19th day of the same month, after three days of coasting, he landed at the port of Aguadilla, near the northwestern extremity of the island, and remaining there two days, named it Puerto Rico. He was struck by the attractive appearance of the land and chose this name, which means "rich port," as an evidence of his opinion. He did not come in contact with the natives, for they fled from the neighborhood when they saw his ship, believing that they were about to be attacked.

**DISCOVERY OF
PUERTO RICO
BY COLUMBUS.**

During the next two years, while the Spaniards were continuing their explorations and conquests in the West Indies, they paid little attention to this island. In 1508, however, Ponce de Leon, who was then the governor of Hispaniola, now known as the island of Haiti, determined to extend his dominion to the neighboring shores. Believing that gold would be found in Puerto Rico, he sailed there with a small force.

The chief of the natives where he landed welcomed him with the characteristic hospitality and kindness of the Indians of those islands, and without hesitation took his eminent visitor to see the most interesting sights. He showed the great resources of the island, finally, at the request of the strangers, taking them to the streams where gold was to be found in the sand. Ponce de Leon was thoroughly delighted with the beauties of the island and its evident fertility. He even imagined that he could find there the fountain of perpetual youth which was the object of his search for many years. Perhaps, if he had reached the splendid mineral springs of Coamo Baños, in the interior of the island, he would have been convinced that the object of his search was at last attained.

The Indian name of the island was Borinquen and the natives called themselves Borinquenians. That name still remains a colloquial title, frequently in use for the people of the island.

**ABORIGINAL
TRIBES OF
PUERTO RICO.**

The native population, of the same race as the inhabitants of the other islands of the Greater Antilles, is believed to have been about 600,000, or two-thirds the population of the present day. The aborigines were of the copper-color familiar in American Indians of the continent, though of a sallow and somewhat darker complexion. The small quantity and little substance of the food they used, the facility with which they supplied material wants without labor, the extreme mildness of the climate, and the absence of quadrupeds for the exercise of hunting, caused them to be weak and indolent and averse to labor of all kinds. Anything that was not necessary to satisfy the pangs of hunger or that did not afford amusement, was regarded with indifference. Neither the hope of reward nor the fear of punishment would tempt them to unnecessary labor. There were, however, some exceptions among them, and some of the Indians displayed much bravery and strength in the contests with the Spanish soldiers.

The Borinquenians were governed by caciques whose eldest sons inherited the succession. In the absence of a son, the chief was succeeded by the eldest son of his sister. The chiefdoms were divided into small provinces, but all were subject to the head Cacique. Little clothing was worn, but paints and pigments were employed for decoration of the face and body. The resinous matter and vegetable oils served to preserve them from excessive heat, perspiration and insects.

The huts of the Indians were quite similar to those used in the southern parts of the continent. The hammock was their chief article

**ARTS AND
CUSTOMS OF
THE SAVAGES.**

of furniture and the calabash their favorite cooking utensil. For arms they had the bow and arrow and for fishing and sea voyages, great canoes hewn out of enormous trees. The aborigines were confiding, generous and peaceful, but very superstitious. They worshipped many idols, but believed in one superior deity. Except the Caribs, who occupied the eastern end of the island and with whom they were at war, they were not cannibals. To the extent that their domestic needs de-

manded, they cultivated the soil, carved wood and stone and made pottery.

After Ponce de Leon had enjoyed the hospitality of the islanders and had won their confidence, he returned to his own realm and planned for the conquest of Puerto Rico. He brought an expedition into the island to subjugate the natives and this proved by no means a difficult undertaking from the beginning. He killed off as many of them as possible and all who were captured were sent as slaves to Haiti. Then the natives, driven to desperation, organized a more determined resistance and commenced to massacre the Spaniards. This did not last long. Ponce de Leon obtained re-enforcements promptly and the Indians were convinced that these new-comers were the resurrected bodies of those they had once killed. Feeling helpless against such a combination, they lost all hope and courage and fell an easy prey to their enemies. Within comparatively few years the aboriginal population, large as it had been, was almost completely exterminated and to-day it is almost impossible to detect a trace of the aboriginal type in any native of Puerto Rico. The island population has been entirely renewed since the Spanish conquest.

**SPANISH CRUELTY
TO THE
NATIVES.**

The Spaniards began to colonize Puerto Rico as soon as their conquest was complete and in 1509 founded the town of Caparra, now called Quebrada Margarita. The site was found to be too high and inaccessible and it was abandoned some forty years later. The present capital city of San Juan was founded in 1511 by Ponce de Leon and for the governor's palace the structure still standing, known as Casa Blanca, was erected.

From that time on a steady stream of Spaniards flowed into the island from the neighboring islands and from Europe and the colony began to prosper. After De Leon's unsuccessful expedition to Florida, where he received a mortal wound from the Indians, who united to repulse him, his remains were brought back to Puerto Rico and interred in the Dominican church of the capital.

During the centuries of warfare in which Spain, France and England carried on conflict in Europe as well as in their colonial possessions, Puerto Rico underwent its share of trouble. Sir Francis Drake

and many less notable buccaneers and privateers invaded its seaports and levied tribute upon its commerce. The first invasion was that of the French in 1538. Then the island was left in peace until 1595, when the English, under Sir Francis Drake, paid the island a visit. He was prevented from entering the harbor of San Juan, by a vessel which

**SPANISH SINK
A SHIP FOR
THEMSELVES.**

the Spanish sunk in the neck of the harbor, thus bottling up their own fleet. The town was bombarded and a great deal of damage done, but altogether the effort was considered a failure. The loss of the English fleet was considerable and the squadron finally withdrew from the capital. Drake contented himself with laying tribute upon the colony by burning the towns on the south side of the island and carrying away a large amount of booty.

Three years later the Duke of Cumberland attacked San Juan with a fleet and after three days' fighting laid the city in ruins. He was unable to follow up his victory, however, as the fever killed his men by the hundreds. The English tried to take the city again in 1615 and the Dutch took their turn at a similar effort in 1625. Other assaults were made by the British in 1678, 1702, 1703 and 1743. At times they were successful and laid the city under tribute, and again they were defeated in their assaults. Finally, in 1795, San Juan experienced its last bombardment for more than a hundred years. The English were anxious to obtain the harbor of San Juan, realizing its value, but they were repulsed with great slaughter. The next invasion of the peace of the city was that made by the forces of the United States more than a century later.

Spain neglected the island of Puerto Rico for nearly 300 years, during which time it was used chiefly as watering place for ships and as a penal colony. About the time of the end of the Napoleonic wars, however, when England and Spain had been fighting together in the peninsula, they began to take more interest in Puerto

**SETTLEMENT OF
PUERTO RICO
STIMULATED.**

Rico and to realize its future possibilities. In 1815 the island was thrown open to colonization and land was given free to all Spaniards who went there to settle. In consequence, hosts of adventurers hastened there, as well as many Spanish royalists, who, during the next few years, left the

rebellious Spanish colonies of Mexico, Central and South America. In order to provide laborers for the plantations, there was a large importation of negro slaves from Africa and the wealth and population of the island increased rapidly.

The succession of revolutions against the Spanish rule sweeping over South America stimulated the people of Puerto Rico to a similar effort and in 1820 they made their first effort to obtain their independence. This rebellion was suppressed by the Spanish, after a short guerrilla war. The next effort to obtain freedom for the island was that of 1868. Simultaneously with the beginning of the ten years' war in Cuba, a formidable outbreak occurred in Puerto Rico. After two months of severe fighting the Spanish regulars were victorious and the leader of the rebels, Dr. Ramon Bentañes, was captured. He and many other prisoners were sentenced to be shot November 4, 1868. On the day before the execution of the sentence, news was received from Spain that Queen Isabella had been deposed, and in consequence all the political prisoners were released and banished from the island.

The holding of slaves ended in Puerto Rico in the year 1873, when slavery was abolished by Spain and payment made to the owners of the released human chattels. The date of emancipation is celebrated in Puerto Rico by all people as a notable time in the annals of the island, contributing peace and prosperity to all.

**WHEN SLAVERY
WAS FINALLY
ABOLISHED.**

During the progress of the Cuban insurrection of 1896, 1897 and 1898, there has been slumbering in Puerto Rico an organization which hoped to move for freedom in the event of Cuban success. In silence the forms of government had been arranged and a flag adopted. It was believed that when the Cubans were successful they would support the cause of Puerto Rico with soldiers, arms and money, so that the smaller island, too, would be freed from Spain. It proved unnecessary to obtain that result by such a method.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE AMERICAN INVASION OF PUERTO RICO.

Admiral Sampson's Bombardment of San Juan—General Miles and the Invasion of Puerto Rico—How the Campaign Was Planned in Washington—How General Miles Executed the Campaign—First Landing on the Soil of Puerto Rico—Operations Between Guanica and Ponce—How Ponce Surrendered—Capture of Arroyo and Guayama—How the Advance Across Puerto Rico Was to Be Made—Condition of the Plan of Campaign When the Protocol Was Signed—Peace News Interrupts a Battle—Spanish Assault on the Lighthouse of Cape San Juan—General Miles and the Campaign in Puerto Rico.

THE first glimpse of actual warfare which Puerto Rico had at the commencement of our hostilities with Spain was on May 12. At 5:15 on that morning the citizens were startled by the cannonading of the forts by the American fleet under the command of Admiral Sampson.

The people of the city at first were terror-stricken and fled into the country as rapidly as possible in great numbers. Then they discovered that little danger threatened them, as the attack was being directed against the fortifications and there was no intention to destroy the town itself. The engagement ended after three hours of cannonading, during which the enemy's batteries were not silenced, although considerable damage was done to them. The parts of the city immediately in the rear of the fortifications suffered great losses by the bursting of shells from the ships. Thanks to the topography of the place, however, shells which passed over the fortifications did not reach the city at all, but continued clear over it and fell into the bay beyond. The harbor was a scene of constant explosions of shells, which threw water high in the air, but did no other damage. When reassured from the threat of danger the citizens realized their privilege and took advantage of the opportunity to witness the bombardment as a spectacle.

The ships taking part in the action were the Iowa, Indiana, New York, Terror, Amphitrite, Detroit, Montgomery, Porter and Wampatuck. The vessels passed in column formation before the fortifications of Morro Castle and the other shore batteries, firing broadsides as they went and then circling, returned to fire from the other broadside. Three times this circuit was made, from the entrance of the harbor to the extreme eastern battery of the city.

**BATTLESHIPS
AND A MONITOR
IN LINE.**

The enemy's firing was heavy, but wild, and the Iowa and New York were the only ships hit. The after turret of the Amphitrite got out of order temporarily during the engagement, but it continued in action with its forward guns. Admiral Sampson and Captain Evans were on the lower bridge of the Iowa and had a narrow escape from flying splinters, which injured three men. The Iowa was hit eight times, but the shells made no impression on its armor. The weather was fine, but the heavy swells made accurate aim difficult. After the battle was over Admiral Sampson declared himself satisfied with the morning's work. He said that he could have taken San Juan if he had wished, but had no force to hold it. He merely wished to show the Spaniards that the port was unavailable as a refuge for the fleet of Cervera, the destination of which was still in doubt.

On July 21, 1898, General Miles sailed from Guantanamo bay to begin the invasion of Puerto Rico. His own force, numbering about 3,500 men, had been waiting in Guantanamo for several days before a convoy of warships was furnished for the troopships. General Wilson had sailed the day before from Charleston, with 4,000 men, and General Schwan left Port Tampa on July 23 with a command numbering nearly as many. The entire army of invasion, therefore, numbered somewhat more than 11,000 men. As the invasion of Puerto Rico was originally planned, landings were to be made on the north coast, one at Fajardo and the other at Arecibo. From these two points on opposite sides of the capital, advances were to be made along the line of the north coast railway. The Spanish troops were to be driven before the Americans and hemmed into the capital, where they were all to be captured at once and exported to Spain.

**ORIGINAL PLANS
OF THE
INVASION.**

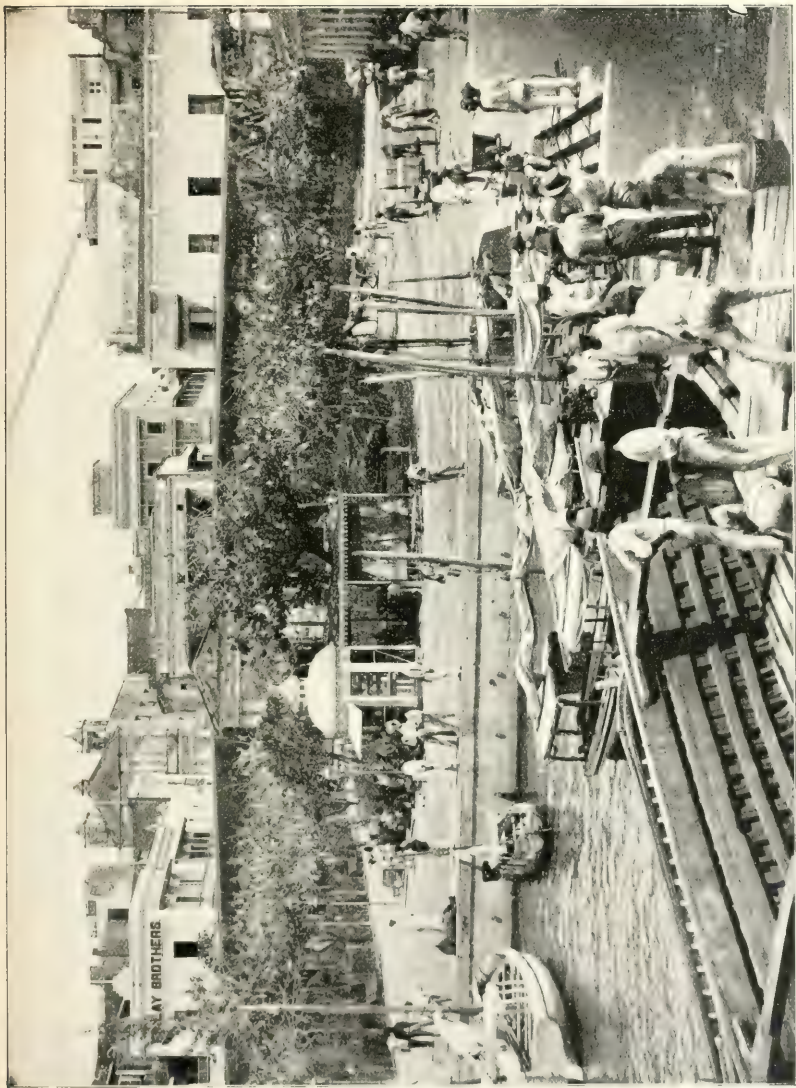
The plan was all right, but Washington was not the place from which to direct military operations in Puerto Rico. The details of this plan were known quite as soon in Madrid as they were to the generals of the army, and as cable communication with Puerto Rico and Cuba was never interrupted even for a single day, in spite of all the cable cutting, it was not long before Captain-General Macias at San Juan knew quite well what form of attack he was to face. Spanish troops were hurried to Arecibo and Fajardo and energetic preparations were made to give the expected visitors a warm welcome.

General Nelson A. Miles, with the wisdom of a great commander, formed his own plans irrespective of those that had been made for him by the Strategy Board in Washington. Instead of sailing into the face of an organized resistance, he changed his destination and made Guanica, near the western end of the southern coast of the island, his landing. The expedition steamed from Guantanamo to Guanica without delay, and on the 25th of July, just as General Merritt was reaching Manila with his troopships from San Francisco, the American forces made their first invasion of the soil of Puerto Rico.

Unprepared as the Spanish were for any kind of an attack on the southern coast, after information of plans so different in character had reached them, they were able to make but a feeble resistance at Guanica. The bay of Guanica is an excellent harbor, with deep water anchorage so near shore that the rocky beach itself may be used as landing stage from steamers. The village is a small one, but a few miles in the interior is the important town of Yauco, which is the terminus of the railway line from Ponce, some twenty-five miles distant.

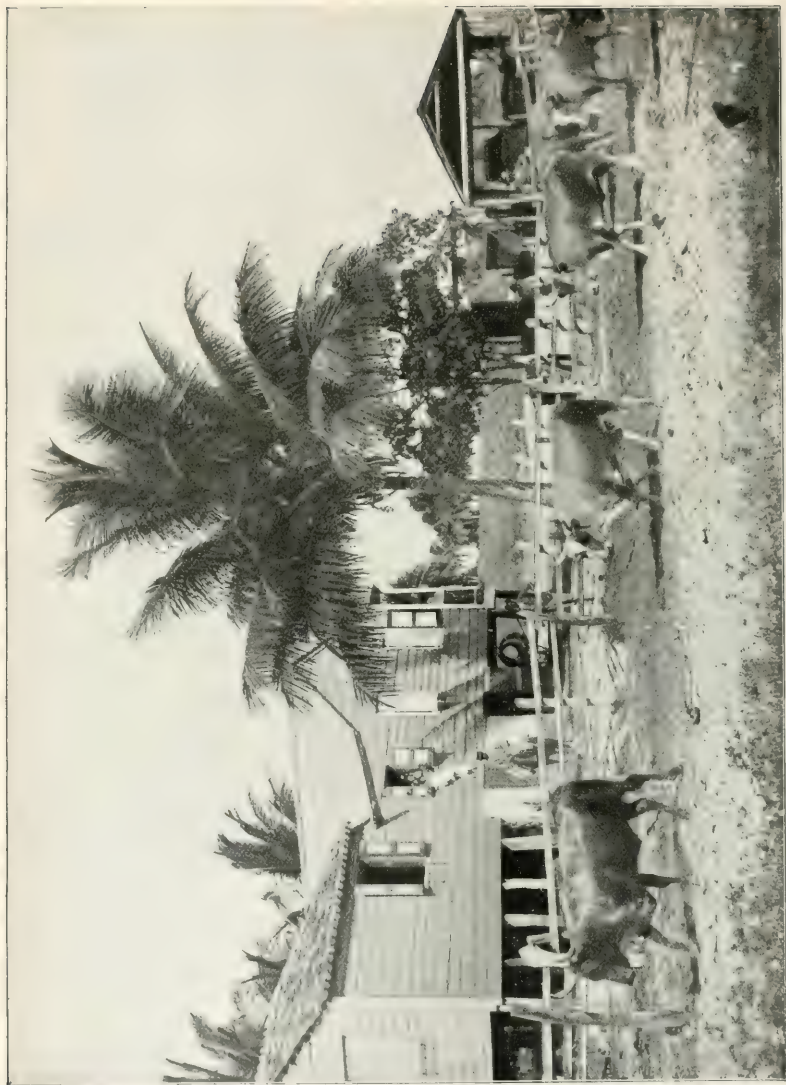
The advance of the American troops of General Henry's division from Guanica toward Ponce was by no means eventful. On the 26th there was a skirmish in front of Yauco, in which little damage was done to either the American or Spanish force. Three days later this division reached Ponce without seeing or hearing anything else of the enemy. In this four days' march along the line of railway, the towns of Yauco, Tallaboa, Sabana Grande and Panuelas were taken without opposition. At Yauco the Americans were welcomed in an address made by the Alcalde, and a public proclamation was issued, dated "Yauco, Puerto

**SPANIARDS TAKEN
COMPLETELY
UNAWARES.**



LANDING-STAGE FOR SMALL BOATS, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

The depth of water at the docks of San Juan is not sufficient for a large vessel to lie directly alongside the wharves. Freight and passengers therefore must be brought ashore in small boats, and the result is that the Mole, presents many picturesque scenes.



SCENE ON A CATTLE RANCH, NEAR BARCELONETA, PUERTO RICO

Cattle raising is an industry which, when well managed, has proven highly profitable in Puerto Rico. The favorite breeds are developed from a mixture of American with South African stock. Pasture grasses are abundant and nutritious.



STREET OF THE CROSS, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

This Calle de la Cruz is one of the well known cross streets of the city extending from the harbor to the ocean wall. The Spanish flag which is seen in the background, floats over one of the barracks not far from Morro Castle.



POULTRY SELLER OF PUERTO RICO

Street merchants in this island carry about, not only the wares that are common to peddlers in our own cities, but all sorts of peculiar things quite as strange as the hucksters themselves. Frequently one sees such a type as this here pictured—a man loaded to the limit of his strength with chickens, ducks and geese, which he offers for sale to the passers by.

Rico, United States of America, July 27." Webb Hayes of the Sixth Ohio, son of former President Hayes, ran up the flag on the palace amid cheers from the populace.

While General Guy B. Henry was marching from Guanica to Ponce, General Miles himself was landing at the outer port of Ponce, known as the Playa. This division of the army was under the command of General Wilson. The incidents attending the surrender and occupation of the city were most inspiring. Ponce is situated three miles inland from the port, and, next to San Juan, is the principal city of the island, containing beautiful homes, clean streets and 40,000 inhabitants.

Port of Ponce surrendered to Commander Davis of the Dixie Wednesday at his demand and without his firing a shot. Thursday morning at daybreak General Miles, with Ernst's brigade of Wilson's division, reached Port of Ponce, where the American flag was already flying. The reception given to the American commander was a splendid demonstration of gladness. The entire population participated in the rejoicing. There was music in the streets and plazas, the houses were decorated with brilliant colors—anything looking like the colors in the American flag being used profusely. Streamers of red, white and blue flew from every balcony and every roof. A dinner was given to General Miles and his staff by the civic officials of Ponce. The wharf, the streets, the roofs, the balconies, were crowded with men, women and children in holiday attire. The firemen and the volunteers of the Puerto Rican army paraded in uniform and petitioned General Miles to be permitted to enlist in the American army. Similar requests were made by many citizens.

**PEOPLE OF PONCE
ARE GLAD TO
SURRENDER.**

The enthusiasm everywhere was immense and apparently there were no Spanish sympathizers left in Ponce after the hasty departure of the Spanish soldiers who had formed the garrison of the city. "We are glad," the people said, "that the United States is to be our country."

General Miles retained his headquarters at the custom house at Port of Ponce, while General Wilson was in immediate command of the troops in the city. General Wilson pushed General Ernst's brigade, consisting of the Second and Third Wisconsin and the Sixteenth Penn-

sylvania regiments, a mile and a half out on the military road after dusk, retaining two companies of the Sixteenth to act as a provost guard in the city.

Captain Allison was appointed provost marshal, and, with the aid of the local constabulary, preserved excellent order, although almost the entire population of the city remained in the streets celebrating the arrival of their American liberators until long after midnight.

During the night all sorts of wild rumors were brought in to General Wilson. The first was that the Spanish were to attack the city in force. In view of this a strong outpost was maintained by General Ernst and the men slept on their arms. This report, however, soon gave way to rumors that the Spanish were retreating, putting entire villages, plantation buildings and houses to the torch, murdering and ravishing as they went.

Some of the wealthy plantation owners of the vicinity became horror-stricken and appealed wildly to General Wilson to dispatch troops to the rescue, but it was manifestly impossible to divide so small a force. None of the reports was confirmed when daylight came, except that the Spaniards were in full retreat.

General Jose Garcia, who was in immediate command of the Spanish regulars—not believed to number more than 500—was deserted by most of the Spanish volunteers in his command during the night, and they began straggling back to the city with the dawn. They immediately presented themselves to the provost marshal and surrendered their arms.

The appearance of the volunteers aroused in the breasts of the natives, who had suffered at their hands in the past, especially the political prisoners, who were released when we took the city, a desire for revenge, and they began to ferret out all the Spaniards in the city who had ever been in the volunteer service and dragged them to the plaza. Bloodhounds could not have been more savage. Most of the Spaniards in hiding, upon being discovered, were hauled in triumph by hooting, jeering mobs to General Wilson's headquarters or to the provost marshal's office in the municipal building. Some of the natives even began looting the residences of the Spaniards. They mistook

**PUERTO RICANS
VIOLENT AGAINST
THE SPANISH.**

liberty for license and thus were crazed with a thirst for vengeance.

General Wilson, however, soon taught them that revenge could not be prosecuted under the protection of the American flag, and ordered that the arrest of the Spanish suspects should cease. Such volunteers as presented themselves were, however, received and released after their names had been taken.

Proclamations enjoining the acceptance of American domination as the greatest blessing granted by God to the inhabitants of the country were frequent, and emanated from the civil authorities as well as political, social and commercial leaders. The citizens went fairly delirious with joy.

But there was more than mere lip service. Earnestness of purpose marked the new era. Loyalty to the stars and stripes evidenced itself in many ways. The civil authorities, directed to resume their functions by the military commanders, recommenced their work with extraordinary vigor. The department of public works set hundreds of laborers to the task of cleaning the thoroughfares. Gas and electric-light companies had their plants in operation, the volunteer fire department, the pride of Ponce, was on duty, while everywhere was shown a disposition to do that which will prove by deeds the new spirit of American patriotism.

The policy of General Miles not to interfere with the local institutions of Puerto Rico was most popular, and the people, who at first feared sudden innovations, were delighted. For the present the Spanish mediæval system of courts will continue as it has during a period of 400 years. All that was required was the oath of allegiance and the Puerto Rican might go about his business as usual. The Anglo-Saxon idea of putting men on their honor was a new one in this place, but immensely popular, and the Puerto Ricans themselves are its strongest advocates. Every man who subscribes to the simple oath at police headquarters seems to be imbued at once with a kind of enthusiastic Americanism which makes him urge all his friends to follow his example.

A systematic administration of the oath to all officials in the surrendered towns was ordered, and the three judges of the highest civil and criminal court of Ponce were sworn. For the first time in

the history of the United States judges in a foreign and supposedly hostile country swore, with God's help, to support the constitution of the United States. The situation was novel. In all the legal literature of our country no form of oath exactly fitted, so the judge advocate on General Miles' staff, Lieutenant-Colonel Klaus, extemporized this:

**FOREIGNERS
SWEAR
ALLEGIANCE.**

"I, —, do declare upon oath that during the occupation of the island of Puerto Rico by the United States of America I renounce and abjure all allegiance and fidelity to every foreign prince, potentate, state or sovereignty, and particularly to the queen regent and king of Spain, and that I will support the constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign or domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; further, that I will faithfully support the government of the United States as established by the military authorities of the same on the island of Puerto Rico, and yield obedience to the same, and that I take this obligation freely, without mental reservation or purpose of evasion, so help me God."

The ceremony was an example of American simplicity. The native judges, accustomed to Spanish ceremonial, appeared at 10 o'clock. They found the judge-advocate in a small room with an interpreter. The judges were standing, and the colonel stared at them through his spectacles as the interpreter read the translated oath. "Raise your right hands," he said. The judges obeyed. "Do you swear?" he inquired. "Si!" came from the three men, and the ceremony was over.

The priests of the cathedral of Ponce are of the order of Vincent de Paul. One of them, Father Janices, speaks English fluently. He it was who delivered the sermon in New York on the occasion of the Spanish memorial services after the death of Canovas. Speaking of the church in Puerto Rico, he said:

"We are neither cowards nor liars! We do not deny that we have always been loyal Spaniards, but we realize that the chief duty of the church is to save souls, not mingle in international quarrels. With all our hearts we welcome the Americans. Your constitution protects all religions, and we ask only for our church that protection which it has ever enjoyed in the United States. The archbishop of Puerto Rico is now in Spain. The vicar-general at San Juan is now acting. We shall no longer look to him as the ecclesiastical head, but so soon

**OPINIONS OF
THE CHURCH
ON ANNEXATION.**

as possible will communicate with Cardinal Gibbons and await his wishes. Should any American soldier desire the ministrations of a priest we shall always be at his disposal. We have determined to become loyal Americans."

Throughout the entire interview Father Janices never once referred to Puerto Rico in any other way than as irretrievably lost to Spain.

General Wilson met the local newspaper editors at his headquarters and told them that he would not interfere with publications so long as they contained nothing hostile to the United States. He assured them that our country would do all in its power to increase the commercial industry and agriculture of Puerto Rico.

In the streets boys were distributing handbills containing the proclamation in Spanish of the commission recently returned from the United States.

The soldiers and people were most friendly. All shopkeepers were protected, and a military patrol afforded ample protection against misdoing. One of the significant signs of the times was the sale of Spanish-American lexicons to the natives. American rule was an accepted fact, and business men were preparing for the new order of things.

The next port of consequence east of Ponce, on the south coast of Puerto Rico, is Arroyo, the port of Guayama, three miles inland. Here a division of American troops under General Haines landed on August 2, protected by the fire of the fleet which lay in the harbor. When the troops were landed, it was decided to make Guayama a base of supplies and the forces moved forward to capture the inland city. Guayama was captured on Friday, the 5th of August, the capture being marked by some stiff fighting, in which Colonel Bennett's boys of the Third Illinois and the Fourth Ohio regiment under Colonel Colt won honors by their steadiness and obedience to orders. The latter regiment had two dynamite guns which proved of great value and worried the Spaniards very perceptibly when they got to work. The enemy began the attack three miles from Arroyo, firing from ambush. Our boys were as cool as veterans, and, after two hours of sharp work, sent the Spaniards flying to the hills. The American troops were armed with Krag-Jorgensen rifles and fired smokeless powder, while the Spaniards had inferior weapons instead of the regulation Mausers. There

were about 400 Spanish soldiers engaged in the attack, and they did the best they could, being aided by the strong position which they held. None of the Illinois men was hurt, but four men of the Fourth Ohio received wounds. One Spaniard was killed and a number were wounded.

By this time the American occupation of the south coast had advanced sufficiently to continue the definite plan of campaign formed by General Miles. The first division, under General Schwan, was to advance from Guanica along the western coast, via San German and Mayaguez, to Aguadilla, the first port made by Christopher Columbus when he discovered the island. From Aguadilla General Schwan was to turn eastward along the northern coast to Arecibo.

**DEFINITE PLAN
OF CAMPAIGN
UNDER WAY.**

The second division, under General Henry, was to push directly north from Ponce through to Utuado, forming a junction with General Schwan at Arecibo.

The main advance of General Wilson's division was to be along the military road from Ponce to San Juan, via Juan Diaz, Coamo, Aibonito, Cayey and Caguas.

The landing at Arroyo and the capture of Guayama were the first step in another advance by General Brooke over the military road from Guayama to Cayey, where a junction would be formed with General Wilson, thus flanking whatever Spanish troops might be stationed on the road between Ponce and Guayama. Before any of these movements could be completed, however, came the armistice and the consequent cessation of hostilities.

It will not take long to relate the condition of affairs at the time the protocol was signed. General Henry in his movement northward from Ponce had passed through Adjuntas and reached Utuado, and was camped within fifteen miles of Arecibo. In the extreme west, General Schwan had marched along the coast and had taken Mayaguez, one of the principal cities of the island, after a sharp skirmish with a force larger than his own. General Wilson had advanced on the military road far enough to occupy Coamo and make a demonstration before Aibonito, where there was a large Spanish force. General Brooke, with his division, was making headquarters at Guayama, the outposts

having advanced a few miles toward the foothills of the mountains.

Most of the forces had experienced some opposition in their forward movement, although in some instances they were not opposed at all. There was quite a strong resistance made at

Coamo by the force of Spanish troops, who fell back upon their trenches and earthwork at Aibonito. **GENERAL WILSON'S SHARP FIGHT AT AIBONITO.**

General Wilson advanced against the town on the main road with infantry, cavalry and artillery sufficient to dislodge the Spanish garrison and compel them to fall back. Their retreat, however, was blocked by a regiment of infantry which had been sent to the rear of the town the night before, and, thus flanked, they were driven into disorder and precipitous flight. Many of them were captured. Those who escaped were cavalry, who took to the mountains by paths better known to them than by the Americans. On the 12th of August, General Wilson continued his advance from Coamo toward Aibonito.

The result of Friday's fighting by General Wilson's troops was a brilliant advance of artillery and the destruction of the Spanish batteries on the heights facing Aibonito. The Spanish rifle pits were also cleared. The first firing by the battery, at a range of 2,300 yards, silenced the Spanish guns. Then a portion of the battery, under Lieutenant John P. Haines, of the 4th artillery was moved forward within 1,000 yards of the Spanish rifle pits and there drove out the enemy and captured a blockhouse.

The firing of the Spanish riflemen and artillerists was very wild. It reached the American infantry in the hills instead of the attacking battery. However, the enemy's rear lines were not dislodged at the end of the day's engagement. A few Americans were wounded. Corporal Swanson of the 3d Wisconsin volunteers was killed by a shell which fell in the midst of the Wisconsin boys. The same missile wounded Corporal Jenks, Private Vought and Private Bunce, all of Company L. Lieutenant Haines, 4th artillery, was hit in the back by a Spanish bullet after the attack had ceased.

At Guayama the news of peace came just in time to interrupt a lively battle. General Brooke's force, in three strong columns, had begun an advance toward Cayey. Three miles out General Brooke's

troops came upon a force of Spanish occupying strong intrenchments on the top of a mountain. Light battery B, Pennsylvania artillery,

**WHEN NEWS
OF PEACE
WAS RECEIVED.**

unlimbered its guns, loaded them with shells and had just received the order to commence firing when a message from General Miles announcing peace was received on the field over a military telegraph wire.

The battery immediately was signaled to cease action, to the surprise of all the men, who were keyed up for battle. The news that the war was over spread rapidly among the soldiers, being received by company after company with roars of disgust. The officers could do nothing but leave the battle unfought and withdraw their troops.

Almost the only aggressive move that had been made by the Spanish in the whole of the operations in Puerto Rico was their effort to retake the lighthouse at Cape San Juan early in the morning of August 9. After the Americans gained possession of the lighthouse a few days before that time, it had been garrisoned by forty sailors from the monitor Amphitrite. The attack by 800 Spanish soldiers was made shortly after midnight. They took Fajardo and hauled down

**SPANISH ATTEMPT
TO CAPTURE
A LIGHTHOUSE.**

the American flag which had been flying there for a few days. Then they moved rapidly along the coast road and opened on the Americans with Mausers and a machine gun. The American sailors might have been overwhelmed in spite of their desperate fighting if it had not been for the cruiser Cincinnati. The vessel was lying near shore, and, discovering the attack, opened on the enemy with the rapid-firing guns. The firing continued for two hours and at daybreak the Spaniards retreated. The loss to the Spanish was not known and the Americans suffered no injury.

The total loss of the Americans in the campaign in Puerto Rico was three killed and less than fifty wounded. As more than one has said since studying the plan and the execution of that campaign, it is a triumph in military science for a commanding general to so conduct his invasion of a foreign country, with thousands of troops engaged on both sides, that his soldiers think of the undertaking as a pleasant summer experience, regretting to receive word that their war-like labors are over.



HOW MARKET SUPPLIES ARE TRANSPORTED IN PUERTO RICO

Horses and packers with pointers are used in Puerto Rico for the carrying of light burdens quite as generally as the peculiar two wheeled ox carts. The horse of Puerto Rico is small and cheap, but he does quite as much work as could be expected of one of his size.



SAN JUSTO STREET, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

The style of city architecture in the capital of this island is very well shown in the accompanying picture. The streets are narrow in most instances, and the city is hilly. The upper floors of the houses are the more favored for residence purposes by the upper classes

CHAPTER XXIII.

STORIES OF PEACE AND WAR.

Conditions when Peace Interrupted War in Puerto Rico—Brooke and Macias Exchange Messages—Scenes on the Road from the Playa to Ponce—The Discovery of a Desperado—A Lesson in American Administration—General Brooke Begins His Journey across the Island—Passing the Spanish Outposts and Rifle Pits—Americans Enter Cayey—A Stop at the City of Caguas—Brooke Enjoys the Hospitality of Macias—What the Americans Learned of the Spanish Defenses—Difficulties of an Advance through the Mountains of Puerto Rico—Arrival of Admiral Schley and General Gordon at San Juan—Exchange of Official Courtesies between Spanish and Americans—Transfer of Authority from Spain to the United States.

WHEN on the 12th of August Secretary of State Day and Monsieur Cambon, the French ambassador, acting for Spain, affixed their signatures to a protocol which formed the basis of peace negotiations, it left Puerto Rico occupied by the Spanish forces throughout the north half of the island, while the American troops faced them by every avenue of advance from the south coast. In their camps, the Americans settled down to await developments. No progress could be made, under the terms of the protocol, until peace commissioners were appointed to negotiate details.

President McKinley appointed not only commissioners to negotiate a final treaty of peace in Paris, but others to deal with the local conditions in Puerto Rico and Cuba. For Puerto Rico, Major-General John R. Brooke, Admiral Winfield Scott Schley and Brigadier-General W. W. Gordon were appointed for this service, to meet such officers as Spain should appoint. At that time General Brooke was in command of the division, with headquarters at Guayama, while Admiral Schley and General Gordon were in the United States. It was understood that the two latter members of the commission would reach San Juan, the

capital of the island, where they were to meet the Spanish commissioners, by a vessel which would sail directly there from the United States.

General Brooke was in doubt at first whether he would sail around the island from Arroyo to San Juan or cross the island by the great military road. To do the latter it would be necessary

**GENERAL BROOKE
PLANNING
HIS JOURNEY.**

to obtain permission from the Spanish, as by the terms of the protocol no advance could be made from the positions held at the time of its signature. General Brooke came to Ponce to discuss the matter with General Miles. He then telegraphed Captain-General Macias for permission to come across the island and received an affirmative reply. Returning to Guayama, he settled down in his own headquarters, delaying his start northward on the important journey until such a time that he would arrive at San Juan simultaneously with the other members of the commission.

War was ended, but the operations of peace were quite as interesting to me and I did not lack for occupation during this period of waiting. I happened to be in Ponce on the day of the receipt of peace news and remained there for some time thereafter, looking into industrial, agricultural and commercial conditions, the character of the people and their possibilities, and such other things as would interest Americans. Some of the chapters which follow contain portions of the

**AN UNPLEASANT
MEMORY
OF PONCE.**

result of the inquiry that I directed from Ponce and throughout the surrounding country. Let this chapter be a mixture of history and reminiscence. Among my memoranda of those days I find one relating an incident which came before my observation during that delay at Ponce, and shall quote it here as a contribution to the reminiscences of the campaign in Puerto Rico.

Object lessons to the people of this island are expected to be of great value in teaching them the character of their new fellow-countrymen, "los Americanos." General Miles hopes that there will be a march across to the north coast on the several lines of advance planned for the military movement in the beginning, in order that the Puerto Ricans may see the American soldiers and their equipment, the American horse, and, not least important, the American army mule. It is be-

lieved that the result of this march, with its accompanying features, and the fact that the army is paying for the food it gets, instead of confiscating it, will do much to convince the people that they may expect fair treatment from the Americans, but that the latter are amply able to maintain peace and public safety if there be any disturbing elements still doubtful of that fact. The result of this will be of value to encourage the peaceable and industrious, at the same time discouraging the other kind. Puertorriqueños are still suspicious, and they are but children in their reasoning. It is worth while, for our own sake, to treat them carefully.

About noon yesterday I was driving from the Playa to Ponce, over that splendid road which the army of invasion found waiting for it. All the way it was crowded with oxcarts and army wagons hauling supplies from the port to the city for the men at the front. On either side at intervals were camps of our men, while the street was lined all the way with the little houses of Puertorriqueños, whose cane fields or kitchen gardens extended back from the shade trees surrounding them. Nearing town, one reaches the ice factory, at the left of the road and but a few yards back of the fence and wagon-gate. Some excitement appeared there and a small crowd was gathering about the gateway.

As my carriage came opposite the gate into the factory yard, moving slowly to avoid the tangle of men, mule teams and oxcarts, a queer sight appeared. Out of the gateway came an oxcart of the usual primitive sort borne on but two wheels, heavy and lumbering, the oxen yoked by their horns, as is usual in Spanish islands, the driver walking ahead and guiding the animals by means of the prod, with which he jabbed them in the shoulders at intervals. In the middle of the heavy cart was a black man. His arms were tied behind his back, drawn together with rope so tightly that his elbows nearly met. His legs were tied together, well lashed for most of their length. He was laid flat on his face, with his head toward the tail of the cart and his feet toward the oxen. There was nothing between him and the boards of the cart. Around the edge of the vehicle were the usual stakes which prevent a load from falling, and to these the man was lashed by ropes from his arms and from his legs, so that he could not

roll or slide about in the cart. He was holding his head up as best he could in the effort to keep his nose and chin from hammering against the rough boards of the cart when it rolled over the drainage ditch at the side of the street or over the little ruts and lumps which mar even this road. Afterward I learned, what was not apparent at the moment, but which explained why he was silent, that the man was also gagged. At either side of the cart as it turned toward the Playa marched two American soldiers with rifles and behind it came another, also fully armed.

**AMERICAN
BRUTALITY
TO A PRISONER.**

My errand in the other direction made it impossible that at the moment I should follow the cavalcade or continue an inquiry as to the crime of which the negro thus triced up had been guilty. Evidently it was a matter of sufficient weight that it would not vanish out of knowledge, so I left it till afternoon. This will explain why but one side of the story is told here. As other carriages or horsemen passed me I asked various soldiers, officers and civilians what was the offense of which the black man had been guilty and who he was. There were various answers. One told me that he had been caught in the act of theft. Another said that he had insulted an officer. A third said that the prisoner was a guerrilla who had shot American soldiers after peace was declared. The last explanation was that he had been prodding his oxen cruelly, being the driver of a cart, and had refused to stop when warned.

The explanations were discussed by some of us who had seen the affair with varying opinions. From what we knew of the island situation the guerrilla suggestion was discredited. If he had prodded his oxen as viciously as in some instances was observed the punishment should have been more logical and should have consisted of a similar case of prodding the man himself. Theft seemed hardly a sufficient explanation. There were not wanting those irreverent ones who argued that if the offense was insulting an officer the circumstances should be very carefully examined on account of the grave difficulty that had been experienced by more than one to refrain from committing that offense themselves. It was finally agreed that if the prisoner had been caught in the act of robbing or mutilating the dead, and had fought

viciously when arrested, there might be a sufficient justification for the torture that he had undergone and the care with which he was guarded. It was difficult to conceive of another possible offense of sufficient gravity.

My first call in the afternoon was at the ice factory. There I was told by employes that the prisoner was a regular hand working about the place, loading ice carts and doing other unskilled labor. He was a native of Ponce. It was explained to me that he had been arrested on suspicion of selling liquor in violation of the military order. Directly across the road from the factory was the camp of the First

**STORY OF THE
ARREST AND
PUNISHMENT.**

Regiment of Volunteer Engineers, which had arrived a few days before on the Chester. I was told that the arrest of the negro had been made by order of the captain of D company of that regiment, who had also directed the placing of him in the cart, and that the prisoner had been taken to the quarters of the provost guard. I went across the road and asked for the captain, but he had gone out into the country with a detail from his own company, including, as far as I could learn, the same men who had made the arrest.

From the ice factory to the old lumber yard, now used by the provost guard, is about two miles. Down that road the desperado had been carted in the manner described, past hundreds of American soldiers and hundreds of Puertorriqueños, who were thus getting an "object lesson." At the guardhouse the officer in command was hospitable. He had not seen the negro himself until after the prisoner had been released from his bonds and brought into the courtyard. But I was quite at liberty to see and question him if I liked, so we went into the room used for prisoners and I had a talk with the man. There was little that it was worth while to ask him, for I had seen him at a more interesting time. He told me that he was born in Ponce and that he had worked in the ice factory for a long time. He explained that he had been working all morning loading ice into carts and at last stepped to the door to get a breath of fresh air. Some soldiers were there and an officer, one of whom asked him if any liquor could be had there. He spoke no English, so it is quite possible that they did not understand his answer and that he had not understood their question.

At any rate, he asserts that he told them that he supposed they could get liquor somewhere and that they then arrested him for selling in violation of the military order. He claimed that he had offered no resistance and had done nothing with contraband goods. His protestations may be of little value, but the weight of probability seemed to be against a negro hand in an ice factory selling rum to the army.

The prisoner was at work carrying water when I saw him. There was no certainty when he would be tried, or, indeed, if he would ever be tried. More likely he would be held for a few days at work, the charge against him would be forgotten by the man who made the arrest; the provost officer, who is a good fellow, will decide in his capacity as judge and jury that the punishment is sufficient and the Puertorriqueñan will be set free with a rankle in his breast against the means of justice employed by the Americans.

It was my desire to reach San Juan as soon as possible, in order to begin certain investigations in the capital where most of the activities of the island are centered. To do this it was necessary for me to join General Brooke at Guayama and accompany him on his journey across the island if that would be permitted. There were no railways which could be employed. The only highway between the north and south coasts of the island is the remarkable military road, extending from Ponce to San Juan, with a connecting branch from Guayama, which intersects the main road at Cayey. Many misleading maps show railways ramifying across the island in great number, but they do not exist except as related in a following chapter, which describes the system in detail. Therefore I drove from Ponce to Guayama by way of Coamo, a journey of some sixty miles, and settled down there to continue my period of waiting in more convenient access to the general whose movements I intended to watch.

On the morning of Saturday, September 3, General Brooke began his progress across the island. He was accompanied on the march by his personal staff and two troops of cavalry as an escort. Following the cavalry came a train of forty army wagons, drawn by American army mules and guarded by American infantry. Four ambulances loaded with civil attaches of General Brooke's headquarters and his

personal staff completed the official cavalcade. An essential part of it, however, was composed of four carriages bearing a little group of war correspondents, who had been witnessing the operations of the army throughout the campaigns in Cuba and Puerto Rico, and now were anxious to see the final act that indicated peace instead of war.

The march across the island began at nine o'clock. With General Brooke and his staff rode General Fred Grant and his staff as an escort through the first few miles of the journey. From Guayama the ascent of the military road is constant by a considerable grade for at least twelve miles, at the end of which distance one has reached an elevation of about 2,500 feet. For a large part of this distance the road is fortified by rifle-pits and intrenchments commanding it from the neighboring hills. In some instances these earthworks were in positions altogether inaccessible from the road, because great chasms intervened.

It was at noon of the first day's journey that the first Spanish forces were seen. They had withdrawn their lines since the receipt of peace news, to a position some ten miles back from Guayama, where they lay strongly intrenched. Word had been sent them the day before that General Brooke and his party were to pass on this day by permission of Captain-General Macias, so that they were prepared in a measure for what they were to see. As we drew near the outposts we saw that we were hemmed in between two rows of rifle-pits lining the hills on either side of the road, which here lay between the crests of a mountain range. Those rifle-pits may have been empty or not. We could not know. Nevertheless it was a certainty that if there had been any desire to entrap the Americans, they were safely in the trap.

General Brooke, with his personal staff riding ahead, reached the little group of Spanish officers drawn up to meet them. There was a quick exchange of formal greeting and an offer of hospitality, kind enough in its form, but by no means hearty. Hundreds of Spanish soldiers were lined up on either side of the road to watch the American cavalcade pass. There was a halt of perhaps fifteen minutes, during which refreshments were offered the American officers by the Spanish officers.

**BEGINNING A
JOURNEY ACROSS
PUERTO RICO.**

**SPANISH AND
AMERICAN
OFFICERS MEET.**

and a like hospitality was shown the American soldiers by the Spanish privates. Then General Grant and his staff turned back toward Guayama, where he was to remain in command, while General Brooke and his party continued northward.

We had passed the Spanish lines and were within their territory, virtually unsupported. There was no flag of truce and no American flag carried with the party. The party was there by sufferance and the courtesy of the Spanish captain-general. The rest of the journey was through the enemy's country. We could not help being reminded of the exchanged messages between one American commander and one Spanish commander whose forces were facing each other on the road at the time the news of peace was received. Under a flag of truce the American sent word to the Spaniard that he had been instructed to notify him of the signing of the protocol and the cessation of hostilities. Quick came the reply:

"I have had no word to that effect from the captain-general of Puerto Rico. If the American commander desires to be assured of a cessation of hostilities, let him be careful to remain where he is."

The first day's march of General Brooke and his escort ended at the town of Cayey, where the military road from San Juan branches in two directions, one to Ponce and the other to Guayama, whence we had come. The entrance into Cayey was an event of great interest to the villagers as well as to the strangers. Thousands of Puerto-riqueños lined the streets and fell in behind the Americans as the procession passed. The little boys of Puerto Rico are as fond of a military parade as are the youngsters of America and ran as eagerly at the sight of the soldiers.

To the people of Cayey, as well as to the Spanish soldiers, the size of the Americans and their equipment was a source of never-failing wonder. "Gran hombre, gran caballo!" we heard all along the way.

**NATIVE IMPRES-
SIONS OF THE
AMERICANS.**

"Great men and great horses" they were indeed, measured by Spanish standards. No such horses and no such soldiers had ever been seen on the island before.

General Brooke had with him a train of forty army wagons containing thirty days' rations and thirty days' forage for his whole expedition, besides camp equipage complete. The train extended

almost a mile behind the cavalry escort, each wagon drawn by six huge American army mules. No such commissary service ever was maintained by the Spanish army in the island, and it was an amazement to the people. The mules were not the least of their wonder. When one laid back his ears and kicked viciously, the crowd scattered as if a beast of prey had been let loose in the throng. Altogether it was a valuable impression that was left upon the minds of the people and the soldiers.

The second day's march brought General Brooke and his expedition to the city of Caguas, where similar scenes were enacted upon his arrival. There was an evident difference, however, between the feelings of the people of the two towns. Caguas is notably pro-Spanish in its sentiment, while Cayey is composed almost entirely of native Puerto-riqueños. In both places the presence of Spanish garrisons and hundreds of Spanish soldiers in the streets caused the crowd to be a silent one. There was no disposition to cheer the Americans who were passing through when such enthusiasm might result in trouble the day after they were gone. These Spanish garrisons were to remain there for an indefinite time and this part of the island was still Spanish territory.

**HOW THE
STRANGERS WERE
WELCOMED.**

It was easily seen, however, that the people of Cayey were happy in the prospect of American dominance, while many of those of Caguas resented the intrusion in silence.

In each town as the cavalcade advanced, the eyes of all the on-lookers were turned upon the commanding general and his brilliant staff mounted on superb saddle-horses. The strapping cavalymen, almost as well mounted, were the next center of interest. Then a murmur ran through the crowd that thronged each side of the street and filled every porch and doorway and window. "Una senorita Americana," "An American lady," and Mrs. White, who accompanied me, was the object upon which every eye was focused. Probably few of them ever had seen an American woman before and she was of quite as much interest to them as even the general of the army.

A third day of progress brought General Brooke to the little suburban city of Rio Piedras, nine miles from San Juan, the capital, where his halt was made. Captain-General Macias had done him the

courtesy to offer his own country house, a most attractive residence, at this place, as a home for the American general. The troops went into camp in a field a mile away, while the officers quartered themselves in the neighboring houses, General Brooke's staff remaining with him in the captain-general's house. For the next few days the American camp was the scene of interest for thousands of the people of Puerto Rico as well as many of the Spanish soldiers. The camp was an ideal one in location and arrangement. It was beautifully kept and carefully policed, so that it served as a model to show what the Americans could do when they tried.

The Spanish were not the only soldiers who had had an impressive lesson on that journey across Puerto Rico. If they had learned the size and excellent equipment of American soldiers, the Americans, too, had learned more respect for their Spanish enemy. The force kept in Puerto Rico by Spain was a selected army, of the highest type of soldiers that the peninsula could furnish. It was well equipped and well nurtured. There was no such hardship and poverty to be undergone as that which had enfeebled the Spanish army in Cuba. They were soldiers in the genuine military sense of the word and quite able and willing to make a fight for their country.

It is true that Spanish garrisons along the south coast of the island fell back after the landing of the American army of invasion without very strenuous opposition. But the conditions were perfectly obvious to one who studied the matter. The garrisons at Guanica, Ponce and Guayama were detached bodies, remote from their supports and facing an overwhelming landing force. When, however, they withdrew to their works in the mountains the condition became very different. The Spanish army in Puerto Rico, intrenched as it was in the mountains between Aibonito and Cayey and between Guayama and Cayey, would have offered a resistance to an American advance which could not have been overcome without an enormous loss of life and desperate fighting.

Those mountain defiles were so fortified as to be almost impregnable. From cliffs and hills above, artillery and machine guns, as well as rifles, could sweep the road over which an advancing force must pass, with a fire that would be simply intolerable. At the same time

AMERICAN
IMPRESSIONS OF
THE SPANISH.

the men at the guns would be absolutely concealed and exempt from even a threat of danger in many instances.

The system of rifle-pits and earthworks of all sorts guarding the military road through this range of mountains was so perfect as to compel the admiration of the American soldiers and officers who caught but a bare glimpse of it. It was frankly admitted to me by officers of General Brooke's staff who studied the situation that the difficulties of an advance across the island by this road would have been terrific. The campaign as far as it was carried was simple and easy. We have reason to be thankful that peace intervened before it became necessary to force a passage into Aibonito and Cayey.

**DEFENSES OF
THE ROAD ACROSS
THE ISLAND.**

If the American advance had successfully passed the fortifications in the mountains, there would have been no other obstacles of great consequence until the city of San Juan itself was approached. Then, however, unless an American fleet had reduced the city by bombardment and made its fortifications untenable, the Americans would have met a resistance exceedingly difficult to overcome. In another chapter I shall describe the defenses of this perfect example of an ancient walled city in more detail. Here it is to be said only that the city is on an island with but one approach available for forces advancing by land. The rifle-pits and fortresses guarding the bridges are of the most perfect character and would form an obstacle, when well manned, almost insurmountable for infantry and cavalry. It is a question even if sufficient artillery could have been brought across the island to make an adequate assault on the city's defenses to the east. Here again, then, there must have been great loss of life before the city could be taken.

Two or three days after General Brooke reached Rio Piedras, the transport Seneca, with Admiral Schley and General Gordon and their staffs, arrived in the harbor of San Juan. The United States cruiser New Orleans by this time was lying in the harbor, near the Spanish gunboat Isabel Segunda. Salutes were exchanged between these vessels and Morro castle. The New Orleans fired an admiral's salute of thirteen guns, to which the Isabel Segunda responded. Then the New Orleans set the Spanish flag at the peak and saluted it with thirteen

**SPANISH AND
AMERICANS EX-
CHANGE SALUTES.**

guns, which salute was replied to by order of Captain-General Macias from Morro castle. During the afternoon Admiral Schley and General Gordon came ashore and took up their quarters at Hotel Inglaterra, to remain during the sessions of the military commission.

About three o'clock in the afternoon General Brooke arrived at the Inglaterra from his headquarters in Rio Piedras and the three commissioners were together for the first time. In my San Juan memoranda for September 7 I find the following account which I wrote then of an incident which may be of interest:

"Spanish and American officials in this island have exchanged preliminary formalities and assurances of their mutual distinguished consideration and regard. All that is left to do is to settle the arrangements for evacuation by the former for the place to become the property of the United States in fact. The new tenant is not disposed to be pressing in asking the old one to move out too hurriedly, but the process will not be long delayed.

"For the last few days I have been about the palace of the captain-general a good deal, on various personal and official errands, and it has been impossible not to feel the pathos of the situation as it affects many persons when one stops to consider the personal equation in it. This phase of the matter was brought most forcibly to mind yesterday, when the first formal call was made, the victors seeking the vanquished in the halls that were so soon to be transferred. Not many were favored with a sight of this particular event in the progress of the history of reconstruction, and those who were present will not forget it.

"About half-past three I went to the palace to have a cable message passed by the censor, a privilege which the Spanish officials still reserve. The official interpreter first reads the message when this form is to be gone through, and, having familiarized himself with what is desired to be sent, takes it to the secretary of the local island gov-

**DEALINGS WITH
THE SPANISH
CENSOR.**

ernment, virtually a cabinet minister in local affairs, and reads it to him in Spanish, translating as he goes. Once approved, the message is stamped on the back of each sheet over which it extends, the last one is signed by the secretary, and the formality is over. The secretary is not exacting now, and little is forbidden to be sent, but the labor of

the journey to the palace and the delays of waiting there are sometimes annoying.

"Yesterday the interpreter told me that the British consul was with the secretary and it would be necessary to wait. Meanwhile we talked of those things in the United States and those books in English which the interpreter knew from his travel and study, and we were having a very pleasant little visit of our own when the rattle of carriage wheels was heard on the pavement outside. It was the arrival of the American commissioners.

"Out of the office bolted the secretary, down the hall, and up the stairs, to reach the grand salon above before the Americans should enter. The interpreter followed in haste. The clerks and the under-secretaries lined up in the entrance hall to see the distinguished visitors, who were halting at the entrance until they should all be out of their carriages and arranged in proper order of precedence. The under-secretary turned to me in haste.

"Do you know which is Admiral Schley?" he asked hurriedly, anxious, like all the others here, to see the man who destroyed Cervera's fleet. I pointed out the admiral, and then the other members of the commission and the distinguished officers who accompanied them. As the last of the score of Americans in uniform passed down the hall and turned up the stairs, the sentries closing in behind them to prevent the entrance of any one else to the palace, he turned to me again with a signal to advance, and we walked up the stairs behind them.

WARM INTEREST
IN
ADMIRAL SCHLEY.

"The suite of rooms in which the captain-general received the eminent callers consisted of three lofty chambers, connecting by wide arched doorways and extending all the way across the west face of that wing of the palace. The first was an ante-room, into which we were ushered, and from it the commissioners, with their staff officers and interpreters, passed into the middle one, where Captain-General Macias awaited them with his own staff. There was a significant circumstance visible at once. The moment the Spanish officers saw the throng of Americans crowding the ante-room, preparatory to entering the next apartment, they moved on into the next room, the third and last of the

suite, nor did they again enter the chamber where the call was actually in progress.

"Captain-General Macias waited alone with his interpreter in the middle room of the three for the Americans to advance. They were ushered toward him, the introductions were made formally, but rapidly, and the crowd formed into groups for conversation. On the west wall of the chamber, and between two windows, hung a great portrait of the queen regent of Spain. Under this stood a sofa with room enough for three to be seated on it, and this was the center of attraction. Major-General Brooke sat in the center, with Captain-General Macias

**EMINENT MEN
EXCHANGE
COURTESIES.**

at his left and his own interpreter at the right. In a chair at the end of the sofa, and so next to the Spanish commander, was Rear-Admiral Schley, Brigadier-General Michael Sheridan, General Brooke's chief of staff, next beyond. Brigadier-General Gordon was seated at the right of General Brooke's interpreter, and, with this crescent as a center of interest, the other Americans were seated facing them.

"During the fifteen minutes through which the call extended, the ante-room was occupied by half a dozen Spanish officers, who surrounded me and sought information concerning the identity of the various Americans. Schley was the one of greatest interest to them, and he was studied keenly enough that they will all know him the next time. There remained no doubt after my conversation with them, what they thought of the relative work of American ships in the destruction of the fleet of Cervera, and the place where the credit belonged. They were exceedingly interested, too, to know that General Sheridan is the brother of the Phil Sheridan whose name they knew so well. They were generous in their compliments concerning the fine-looking men in the staff and were in every way civil and friendly. One of the officers said to me that he felt sorry for those who had withdrawn into the third room, because they had no one in reach who could name to them the different Americans in the party.

"It seems worth while to say here that the only other American present at the ceremony except those officers of the army and navy in the commission or on the staff of the commissioners was Mr. T. Dart

Walker, the special artist for Harper's Weekly, who was able to obtain an excellent sketch of the scene. No other newspaper correspondents were in the palace."

A day later Captain-General Macias returned the call of the American commissioners and then the work of drawing up the plans for the Spanish evacuation of the island began. At the end of one week there was perceptible progress and every-
**CAPTAIN-GENERAL
 MACIAS
 MAKES A CALL.**
 At last the labors were completed and finally the day was fixed for the hoisting of the American flag over San Juan and the complete and permanent occupation of the island by the military forces of the United States.

American men-of-war and American transports by this time had entered the harbor of the capital to take part in the quiet and dignified ceremony. On October 18, at eleven o'clock, the 11th infantry, with two batteries of the 5th artillery, landed. The latter proceeded to Morro castle, which was to be occupied as a fortress, while the infantry lined up on the docks. It was a holiday for San Juan and there were many people on the streets. Rear Admiral Schley and General Gordon, accompanied by their staffs, proceeded to the governor's palace in carriages.

The 11th infantry regiment and band, with troop II of the 6th United States cavalry, then marched through the streets, and formed in the square opposite the palace. At 11:40 A. M. General Brooke, Admiral Schley and General Gordon came out of the palace with many officers and formed on the right side of the square. The street behind the soldiers was thronged with townspeople, who stood waiting in dead silence.

At last the city clock struck the hour of 12, and the crowds, almost breathless, and with eyes fixed upon the flag pole, watched for developments. At the sound of the first gun from Morro, Major Dean and Lieutenant Castle, of General Brooke's staff, hoisted the stars and stripes, while the
**AMERICAN FLAG
 RAISED IN
 PUERTO RICO.**
 band played the "Star-Spangled Banner." All heads were bared, and the crowds cheered. Fort Morro, Fort San Cristobal

and the United States revenue cutter Manning, lying in the harbor, fired twenty-one guns each.

Señor Munoz Rivera, who was president of the recent autonomist council of secretaries, and other officials of the late insular government were present at the proceedings.

Congratulations and handshaking among the American officers followed. Ensign King hoisted the stars and stripes on the Intendencia, but all other flags on the various public buildings were hoisted by military officers. Simultaneously with the raising of the flag over the captain-general's palace many others were hoisted in different parts of the city.

General Guy V. Henry, the military governor of Puerto Rico, took charge of the administration of island affairs without delay, enlisting the people of prominence locally in the duties of government as fully as possible. Welcoming the American influence as heartily as they did,

PUERTORIQUEÑANS

**HAVE
ASPIRATIONS.**

the people looked forward to the time when they should be added definitely to the relations of citizenship. A convention was held in San Juan at the call of General Henry, at which delegates were present from all the important towns of the island. They declared enthusiastically for free trade with the United States, compulsory education and territorial organization, with a view to early statehood for the inhabitants on the same basis as the citizens of the other states of the Union.

Except for a slight feeling of irritation among the people of Puerto Rico at what they considered the unnecessarily prolonged stringency of the military rule, this was the condition of affairs in Puerto Rico from the time peace came until a more definite form of government was under discussion by congress to be enacted for the island.



A COLORED BELLE OF PUERTO RICO

The mixture of African with Spanish blood is not found in all of the people of this island. The higher classes of white people hold themselves as strictly in their own society as in any other country. This attractive colored girl is of the higher type of that race.



CONFECTION VENDERS OF PUERTO RICO

The people of Puerto Rico are as fond of confectionery as our own. It is the habit to buy from street hucksters more frequently than we do, and these in the picture are familiar types. The candies they carry usually are made of chocolate, cocoanut and sugar.

CHAPTER XXIV.

PUERTO RICO, ITS CITIES AND ITS PEOPLE.

Mountain Ranges and Peaks of Puerto Rico—The Island Well Watered by Rivers—Condition of the Harbors—Perfection of the Climate—Healthfulness of the Island—Land and Sea Breezes—Exemption from Hurricanes—Minerals and Mineral Springs—The Adjacent Islands—Vieques or Crab Island—Culebra—Mona—Population of Puerto Rico—The City of San Juan and Its Fortifications—Public Buildings and Streets—Ponce, the Southern Port—Other Cities of the Island—The Towns and Villages of the Interior—Characteristics of the People of Puerto Rico.

VISITORS from the United States are likely to reach the island of Puerto Rico by way of one of two ports, San Juan Bautista de Puerto Rico, the capital, or Ponce, the largest city. By whichever avenue the island is entered, the first glimpse the stranger will have is that of the mountains. The Sierras extend the length of the island from east to west, forming a great backbone ridge, from which rivers flow both north and south into the sea. The ascent from the sea to the mountains is gradual, both on the north and the south until the foothills are reached, when the slopes become more precipitous. All of the ranges are heavily wooded or cultivated, so that the aspect is beautifully green from every point of view. The highest peak in the island is El Yunque or the anvil, variously stated as from 3,600 to 5,100 feet in height. No accurate measurement has been made. It is situated in the northeastern part of the island, not many miles from Cape San Juan, and is visible from the sea at a distance of nearly seventy miles. There are several other peaks of height ranging from 2,500 to 4,000 feet.

The central mountain range, extending from east to west, divides the island into two unequal portions, the larger one to the north. In the eastern half of the island, however, the range divides and incloses a large part of the province of Guayama in a great interior valley. All of the rivers rise in the mountains and flow through deep valleys which

they have eroded. Most of the harbors are situated at the mouths of these rivers, and, except in two or three instances, are complicated by harbor bars, which make entrance and navigation somewhat difficult. In an island of this size it is hardly to be expected that many lakes of consequence would be found, although there are several small ones along the north coast. Nature has been generous, however, with rivers and the island is marvelously well watered. In the small area of less than 4,000 square miles there are nearly fifty rivers flowing into the sea, besides countless rivulets and streams.

Seventeen of these, taking their rise in the mountains, cross the valleys of the north coast. Some of these are navigable for six or eight miles from their mouths, for schooners and small coasting vessels. It is difficult to understand how such large bodies of water can be collected in so short a course. The Loisa river, the Manati river, the Trabaja river and the Arecibo river are very deep and broad. The rivers of Bayamon and Piedras flow into the harbor of San Juan and are also navigable. From Arecibo river to Manati, a distance of twenty-five miles, a fresh-water lagoon, navigable for small vessels through the whole of its extent, runs parallel with the sea at a distance of about a mile from the shore.

The rivers of the north coast have a decided advantage over those of the south coast, where the climate is dryer and the rains less frequent. Nevertheless the south, west and east coasts are well supplied with water, and, although in some seasons it does not rain for several months on the south coast, the rivers are never dry. Probably there is no land of corresponding size anywhere in the world that is better watered than the island of Puerto Rico.

The harbors of Puerto Rico have not been developed and improved as they will be under an American regime, there being but few of special merit at present. San Juan, the capital, has the best harbor of the island and one of the best in the West Indies. Of late years some improvements have been made by dredging, so that there is now excellent deep-water anchorage for vessels of any size. The port is perfectly sheltered from the effects of the north winds by the hill upon which

**SITUATION OF
THE MOUNTAINS
AND RIVERS.**

**NUMBER AND
VALUE OF
THE HARBORS.**

the city stands and vessels are perfectly secure even during the hurricane months. The entrance to the port is narrow, however, and requires a pilot.

The city of Aguadilla has a small cove and Mayaguez has also an open roadstead, which is somewhat better protected. The bays and harbors which abound on the south coast are surrounded by mangroves and complicated by reefs, so that the only ones where vessels of considerable draft can enter are Guanica and Ponce. The first of these, which is the westernmost harbor of the south coast, is easy of access and completely land-locked, affording perfect shelter for vessels drawing twenty-one feet of water and upwards. There are no wharves, however, for the village of Guanica has no outward trade and Yauco does not carry on sufficient trade to be of much consequence.

The port of Ponce is but little protected from southerly winds and is by no means the best of harbors. Nevertheless the volume of traffic of this city has been great enough to draw considerable shipping into this port. The port of Jobos, southwest of Guayama, is a large and well-inclosed bay, but there has been no business and no town developed on its shores. Its convenience and depth would suggest that some day an important business center would be established there. The port of Guayama at present is Arroyo, which is little more than an open roadstead where the surf always washes. The only ports of any consequence on the east coast are Fajardo, where two little islands close the mouth of the bay and offer complete shelter to vessels, and Humacao.

The climate of Puerto Rico is, perhaps, the finest of all the islands of the West Indies. The temperature, as would be expected in the tropics, is high both summer and winter, in comparison with that of more northern lands. Nevertheless, it is not so severe as to be trying upon any except those who suffer especially from hot weather. The north coast has an advantage over the south coast in this, as in the matter of rains and rivers. All summer it is swept by the northeast breezes from the north Atlantic ocean, thus moderating its heat materially. The south coast, on the other hand, gets its breezes from the Caribbean sea and farther into the tropics. For myself I can affirm that the sum-

IDEAL CLIMATE
OF
PUERTO RICO.

mer season in Puerto Rico afforded me more comfort than the corresponding season in Chicago has done many, many times.

In San Juan the temperature rarely rises above eighty-six degrees in the shade, nor does it sink below fifty-nine degrees. The highest point ever reached in the last five years is ninety-two degrees. The hot season sets in about July 1 and lasts till the latter part of September. The rainy season commences one month later and lasts two months longer. Even earlier than that, however, rains begin sufficiently to water the crops and stimulate nature to remarkable productiveness.

During the hot season the morning hours are the most trying part of the day. By ten o'clock, however, the sea breeze brings relief and life becomes thoroughly comfortable again. Even in the rainy season the showers are not as constant as many people imagine. There are frequent brief rain storms of considerable violence and then the sky clears again with surprising rapidity. As the island is one mass of hills and the natural drainage is perfect, the torrents of rain disappear into the water courses as suddenly as they came and everything is dry again, as well as greener and fresher for the shower bath. A wetting from such a shower in such a climate brings no chill and if a change of clothing be impossible the light garments dry quickly on the body, and there is no harm done. People pay very little attention altogether to the rains in Puerto Rico.

I have been speaking of the climate in the cities and along the coast, where Americans are most likely to be. It is impossible, however, to generalize on the subject of climate, even in an island no larger than Puerto Rico. In the mountains the inhabitants enjoy the coolness of spring the year around, thanks to their altitude, even when the valleys are the hottest. This difference of elevation makes it possible to select a residence in almost any temperature desired and the agricultural industries of the island are so varied that there is something suitable for every neighborhood.

Puerto Rico is one of the most healthful islands in the world. With ordinary caution and diet, particularly as to the eating of tropical fruits, and if care is taken not to sleep in a draught, no fears need be entertained of fevers and other diseases peculiar to the tropics. Al-

though one would suppose that all the large islands in the tropics enjoy the same climate, yet Jamaica, Santo Domingo and Cuba experience a much higher mortality than that of Puerto Rico, and that is the best test. The small islands of the West Indies, some of them destitute of wood and high mountains, which have a powerful effect in attracting clouds, suffer much from drought. The land-breeze is an advantage which the large islands derive from the inequality of their surface, for as soon as the sea-breeze dies away, the hot air of the valleys, being rarified, ascends toward the top of the mountains and is there condensed by the cold, making it heavy again. It then descends back to the valleys on both sides of the ridge. Hence a night wind, blowing on all sides, from the land toward the shore, is felt in all the mountainous countries within the torrid zone.

**BLESSINGS
OF THE
LAND BREEZE.**

Violent wind storms and hurricanes have been unknown in Puerto Rico for many years. The last one of any consequence was that of 1825, which destroyed several towns and caused much damage to agriculture. The hurricanes of the West Indies, which are so dreaded by mariners and by the people on shore alike, seem to have left Puerto Rico almost exempt. Earthquakes are somewhat frequent, but not violent or of great consequence. Rain storms in the midst of the rainy season are sometimes very violent, damaging bridges and growing crops along the streams into which they drain. This is almost the only exception to nature's kindness to the inhabitants of Puerto Rico.

The pleasantest time of year for an American's visit to the island is after the rainy season ends in the late fall. At that time the weather begins to be clear and fine and every condition is favorable to the most comfortable travel in the island.

Puerto Rico is by no means rich in minerals. Galena is mined at La Rosita, in the province of Guayama; gold is washed in various streams, lignite is found, and there are various salt ponds which are worked commercially. Copper and iron are reported to exist. There are various mineral springs of healing virtue, particularly the famous Baños de Coamo. The sulphur baths of Quintana, near Ponce, and the springs of Juana Diaz are notable locally among the islanders.

**UNDEVELOPED
MINERAL
WEALTH.**

There are several caves of considerable size. The most notable one is that of Aguas Buenas, which shows conclusively the volcanic origin of the island. It is tortuous, with deep recesses, but the myriads of bats inhabiting it render a visit far from pleasant. The names of other caves are, the "Cave of the Dead," in Utuado; Consejo cave, in Arecibo, and the cave of Ciales.

Adjacent to Puerto Rico on the east, west and south are several little islands which belong to the colony geographically and the ownership of which we inherit from the Spanish. The largest of these is Isla de Vieques or Crab island, which lies directly east of Puerto Rico, thirteen miles from the port of Humacao. This island is twenty-one miles long and six miles wide, with a chain of mountains dividing it through its entire length. The highest of these mountains reaches an elevation of 1,000 feet, Mount Pirata at the west end, but this is a sufficient elevation to protect the valleys from the tropical storms that sometimes reach the island after they have swept through the Caribbees. The soil is very fertile. All the fruits and vegetables which may be grown in the West Indies will flourish here, and even now, under extremely adverse circumstances, sugar is cultivated and cattle raised with profit. The mountains are covered with forests of timber. The products of the island would find markets at Ponce and St. Thomas if not in the United States.

About 6,000 persons, white and black, compose the population of Vieques. The capital, Isabella Segunda, is in the middle of the north coast, its harbor, Port Mula, being the extreme northern point of the island. Like all harbors on this side it is unsafe for anchorage during northerly gales, but Port de Arenas is only a short distance to the west around the end of the island, while on the south are the inlets of Ferro, Mosquito and Real. Some years ago there were two im-

**FACTS ABOUT
THE ISLAND
OF VIEQUES.**

porting and exporting houses of importance at Isabella Segunda, and the now vacant warehouses are in good repair, awaiting the advent of some enterprising American, who will buy them for a song. Business was ruined on the island because of a long drought and under the pressure of enormously high duties on foreign imported goods the trade has decreased to local consumption only. For some

time past all supplies have been brought from San Juan and Ponce, the majority being of American origin. The climate of Vieques is good and contagious diseases have never been known on the island. The sea air is delightfully bracing and the thermometer is ever at that comfortable mark which permits the wearing of duck clothing all the year around.

Culebra, eight miles north of Vieques, is an island eight miles by three and a half miles in extent, to the east of which is the fascinating islet of Culebrita. The lighthouse is here and a beautiful harbor is to be found in the narrow channel between. To the west of Culebra is the isle of Polominos, but a few miles from Fajardo, on the main island of Puerto Rico, and well protected by the hill, across a stretch of water, from which rises the stately white lighthouse of Cabeza de San Juan. Here the waters of the Caribbean sea, playing at hide and seek among the reefs and shoals which fringe the east coast of Puerto Rico, join the heavy swells of the Atlantic and strive for mastery at each change of the current.

On the southern coast of Puerto Rico, opposite the harbor of Ponce and but five miles from shore, is Caja de Muerto island, where there is good anchorage. Its coasts abound in fish and are surrounded by quays. To the west of Cape Rojo, off the western coast of Puerto Rico, is the island of Mona, of volcanic origin. Its coasts rise perpendicularly to a great height above the sea level. It is inhabited by a few fishermen and abounds in wild cattle, goats and swine. It is this island that gives the name to the Mona passage, the channel separating Puerto Rico from Haiti. Monito is a very small island north of Mona. Besides these there are many islets and quays along the east coast of Puerto Rico from Cape San Juan southward to Humacao.

The total population of the island of Puerto Rico is, perhaps, 900,000, although there is no census sufficiently accurate to afford definite figures. The island is known as "the whitest of the Antilles" because the negro population is less dominant there than in any other of the West Indies. Probably 150,000 of the inhabitants are peninsulares, as the natives of Spain are termed throughout the colony. From 12,000 to 14,000 are foreigners, mostly Frenchmen, Germans, Italians and

**POPULATION
AND RACES OF
PUERTO RICO.**

Englishmen. The native population is composed of about two-thirds whites, who are descendants of Spaniards, and one-third negroes, and those of mixed blood or half-castes. Many of the blacks come from Barbadoes, Jamaica, St. Thomas and the other Antilles. It is evident that the density of population of the island is great, the nearest estimates calculating about 250 per square mile. This far outranks the population of Cuba, for the latter island, although some thirteen times as large as Puerto Rico, contains not nearly twice as large a population. This fact must be kept in mind in calculating the possibilities of the commercial and agricultural development of the country.

The western part of the island is far more densely populated than the eastern. The reason for this probably lies in the fact that the east coast is on the windward side and offers less protection for shipping, consequently it is not so conveniently situated for trade. All of the larger towns of the east are situated inland or at least some distance from the coast. They are in the hilly portion of the island and are surrounded by rich coffee plantations and grazing land of considerable extent.

The inhabitants of Puerto Rico are scattered all over the country and there is no unsettled district. In spite of the fact that they have many towns and villages, some of them of considerable size, yet there is no road so lonesome that the native cabins do not appear at frequent intervals surrounded by their own little farm and garden. Within the last fifty years, however, while the population has been steadily increasing, there has been a drift into the towns and cities, so that these have grown more rapidly than the rural districts.

San Juan, the capital of Puerto Rico, with a population of some 33,000, is one of the most picturesque examples of the walled city of antiquity that can be found anywhere. It is situated on the northern coast, on a long and narrow island separated from the main island of Puerto Rico by a shallow arm of the sea. At the western extremity of the city, the island site ends with a rugged promontory and bluff more than 100 feet in height, facing the sea and the harbor entrance. This is crowned with the principal fortification of the city, the famous Morro castle. The form of the castle is that of an obtuse angle, with

**THE ENTIRE
ISLAND
THICKLY SETTLED.**

three tiers of batteries, placed one above the other, toward the sea, their fires crossing one another. Toward the city it has a wall flanked by two bastions of heavy artillery, which dominate all the intermediate space, covering the city thoroughly and indicating an intent to prepare for trouble from the land side, as if danger was to be feared from the people who professed allegiance to the flag which floated from its staff. The usual barracks are here, large water tanks may be seen and several warehouses. The cross on the spire of a small chapel shimmers in the sunlight. A mine descends from the castle to the seashore through the entrance of the port, its issue being defended by a battery. Troops may enter and leave the works by this means, protected from the fire of an enemy.

The site of this fortification has always been regarded with preference by officers detailed to construct defenses for the city. Originally it was but a single battery, although as far back as 1584 the plan of the fortress was drawn and gradually developed until reaching its present state of perfection. When remodeled and armed with modern rifles, behind which are stationed American artillerymen, it will be impregnable. On the top of this castle is a revolving light rising to a height of 170 feet above the level of the sea and sending its rays eighteen miles across the waves of the Atlantic.

**MORRO CASTLE
AND
SAN CRISTOBAL.**

About one mile eastward from the harbor entrance and Morro castle, still facing the sea and northeast of the city, is the castle of San Cristobal. It defends San Juan on the land side, occupying nearly the whole width of the islet from the bay to the ocean and pointing its fire in all directions. Its structure is accommodated to the nature of the ground, which is uneven. The castle has two large bomb-proof barracks and everything necessary in the way of offices and store rooms. Above the barracks is erected the Caballero fort, with twenty-two cannon, whose fire dominates the city and its vicinity on land and sea. Below the castle is the drill ground, with batteries directed toward the sea, the land, and the drawbridge.

Three large ravelins follow the scheme of defense: San Carlos, occupying the hilltop; Principe, on the slope of the Ceusta, and Principal, where is the drawbridge of the second fosse, giving issue to

counter trenches, the covered way and the field reached through the gate of Santiago. For the most part all these fortifications are cut from solid rock, and the tiers of batteries as viewed from the sea give the impression of immense power, although we know that they are inadequate in modern warfare.

San Cristobal castle is connected with Morro castle on the north by a wall of modern construction, there having been nothing on that side until the end of the past century, except a few batteries, owing to the knowledge that the roughness of the coast rendered unnecessary any greater fortifications to prevent a landing.

Starting from the southern part of San Cristobal castle and following the edge of the bay a line of bulwarks is encountered, being those of Santiago and San Pedro, the curtain being interrupted by the Espana gate, after which follow the bulwark of San Justo and a gate of the same name, which forms an arch under the curtain. Then

**DETAILS OF THE
SAN JUAN
FORTIFICATIONS.**

comes the half-bulwarks of San Justo, the bulwark of La Palma or San Jose, the platform of Concepcion, to the half-bulwark and fortress of Santa Catalina. From here to the half-bulwark of San Agustin to the west is the gate of San Juan and then the platform of Santa Elena. These fortifications were begun in 1630 and finished in 1641, but not until 1771 were the castle of San Cristobal and the outworks built. These latter consisted of rifle-pits and loop-holed batteries between the town and the San Antonio bridge. At the head of the bridge is situated the San Antonio fort. It is this bridge that connects the island with the main land, and over which every one approaching the city must pass. Guarded as it is, it would have been a most difficult task for infantry and cavalry to force an entrance into the city. On the extreme east of the islet and near the San Antonio bridge, is the small fort of San Jeronimo, which also defends the passage.

Between Morro castle and the opposite shore, thus virtually in the middle of the entrance to the bay from the outer ocean, is a small fort called Cannelo. It is oblong, well fortified, and by its position obliges vessels attempting to force an entrance to the fort to pass actually within rifle range of its fire and that of Morro castle. Formerly, in

case of war, a chain was thrown out between this and Morro castle to close the entrance to the port.

San Juan island, on which the city is built, is shaped much like an arm and a hand. The greatest width at the western extremity is half a mile, and here, on the sloping hills, the government buildings, as well as the business and residence districts, are established. When one drives eastward, he finds the island continually narrowing until,

**THE CITY AND
ISLET OF
SAN JUAN.**

as he passes San Cristobal castle on the way to San Antonio bridge, the beautiful boulevard is circumscribed between bay and sea, where the total width of the island is less than one-quarter of a mile.

The public buildings of San Juan are in the midst of the city, near the western end of the islet. They include the necessary institutions of charity, the captain-general's palace and the government offices, the barracks, hospitals, the cathedral, the town hall, the educational institute, the priests' seminary, and the courts. Here, too, are the principal business streets, containing the banks, steamship offices, stores and hotels. There are several small parks and plazas embellished with statuary and tropical shrubbery. The theater is in the other end of town, almost under the shadow of San Cristobal castle.

In spite of the traditional filth of cities under Spanish administration, I am compelled to say that the business and residence section of San Juan would entitle it to be called a marvelously clean city. I know no city in the United States except Washington which compares with it in the cleanliness of its streets. It is paved throughout with vitrified brick and the paving is kept in the best condition. The cleanliness must be credited in great degree to the hilliness of the city. The streets are on such an incline that there is little wheeled traffic to mar the paving, and the frequent showers of rain wash all the dirt off and down into the bay. In passing through the poorer quarters, however, one gathers facts which compel the admission that, however clean the streets may be, the inside of the houses is not kept as well. An American would prefer the street in many cases.

**SURPRISING
CLEANLINESS
OF THE STREETS.**

San Juan is lighted by gas and electricity. There is good telegraph and telephone service throughout the city and the island cable

service to the rest of the world is excellent. Ice is manufactured in sufficient quantity. The water supply is obtained entirely from cisterns, but it seems to be wholesome and seldom responsible for sickness.

Ponce, the largest city of Puerto Rico and the important port on the south coast, is by no means as attractive or interesting a city as San Juan. The population of Ponce is, perhaps, 40,000, although this may be a generous estimate. The city is not one of the older settlements of the island, but its port and the splendid agricultural country tributary to it have stimulated its growth and commerce. The city is not built near the sea, but three miles inland. At the port, where all the import and export trade centers, are many of the more important government offices.

Mayaguez, the principal city of the west coast, has a population of 12,000 or 15,000 and is one of the most picturesque places in the island. It is a clean, well-kept city, handsomely built and modern. Its exports include sugar, coffee and fruits. It has hospitals, a market place, a theater and a public library, besides various public buildings that are highly creditable to the place. Mayaguez is connected with Aguadilla by rail.

**MAYAGUEZ
AND
OTHER CITIES.**

Arecibo is the principal town on the north coast, west of the capital, with which it is connected by rail. It has a fine plaza and cathedral, a town hall and a theater with many pretentious residences and excellent stores. The territory tributary to Arecibo is exceedingly fertile and easily accessible by the north coast railway, so that it is certain to be the scene of investment and development under the American regime.

The most important town of the east coast is Humacao, which does a considerable local trade and is the center of a rich agricultural district. Guayama, on the south coast, which was the starting point for General Brooke on his journey across the island, is an attractive town with a fine cathedral and plaza. In the country behind Guayama and in the mountains which bound the valley are large sugar plantations and coffee plantations of great value.

There are many other towns of local importance and large trade,

the names of which are hardly known to Americans, but which will become familiar enough when more intimate commerce begins. In the west Hormigueros, San German and San Sebastian, Lares and Añasco must be named. In the south Guanica and Yauco are certain to develop. The interior of the island has many prosperous towns which are the center of agricultural districts of great fertility. Among these are Adjuntas and Utuado between Ponce and Arecibo, and Coamo, Aibonito, Cayey and Caguas on the military road between Ponce and San Juan. Bayamon, Rio Piedras and Carolina are centers of sugar cultivation not far from San Juan. There is hardly one of these towns that does not offer interesting novelties to the traveler or commercial opportunities in its vicinity to the investor.

**INTERIOR TOWNS
OF
PUERTO RICO.**

As to the characteristics of the Puertorriqueños, we have some interesting testimony from one who ought to be an authority. I have a little text book of geography, written by a local educator, and used in the schools of Puerto Rico. I find in it a paragraph in which he answers his own question, "What is the character of the Puertorriqueños?"

"His manner is affable and accommodating. His complexion usually is slightly pale, his appearance agreeable, his figure graceful and his bearing dignified yet alert. The Puertorriqueños are honorable, valiant and hospitable. Their constitution, like that of most inhabitants of hot countries, is frail and subject to sickness, yet there are many individuals, particularly those who are engaged in physical labor, who are strong, agile and robust."

Against such testimony as this it would be impossible to offer denial. As a matter of fact, Señor Soler has very well outlined the facts as they are. Throughout the chapters of this book are related incidents which may be of service in estimating characteristics of the people. It is sufficient to say here that, like those of other countries, they have mingled good and bad qualities in fair proportion. There is, however, nothing about the people of this island which makes the prospect of adapting them to American methods and manners a dubious one.

**POSSIBLE
AMERICANISM
OF THE PEOPLE.**

CHAPTER XXV.

TRAVEL IN PUERTO RICO.

How Tourists Will Journey About the Island to Visit the Attractions It Offers—How the Railway System Was Designed and Built—Business Methods of the French Contractors—The Country Reached by the Railways—Tram Lines and Private Railway Lines—An Opportunity for American Capitalists and Engineers—The Great Military Road Across the Island—Remarkable Bridge and Road Construction by Spanish Engineers—A Five-Mile Dash Down Hill—Sugar and Coffee Plantations—An Avenue of Poinciana—Primitive Roads Through the Remoter Parts of the Island—The Methods of Spanish Drivers—Across Puerto Rico by Diligence.

FEW visitors to the island of Puerto Rico will be content to end their journey with a glimpse of the island capital and the south coast metropolis of Ponce. The scenery of the interior, with its commanding beauty, and the attractions of island agriculture, will draw all but the most casual tourist to explore for himself these varying conditions. He will find available for his travel, first the great military road which crosses the island, and next the railways which were planned to encircle it. He will utilize the railways for his visit to the coast cities, except where they are yet uncompleted. He will travel by carriages over the military road, and it may be necessary for him even to employ horses and ride instead of driving into some of the more attractive mountain regions. The most desirable destinations are not in every case the most easily accessible in Puerto Rico, any more than they are in other countries.

In the reorganization of the railway system of Puerto Rico, some American promoter and some American capitalist should find profit. In the whole island there are not enough railway possibilities to make fortunes for many rival manipulators, but a few will find a field awaiting them, or one "Napoleon of finance" may discover even a bonanza. Just now the service is in a thoroughly disorganized condition, not likely to be remedied until Americans become interested. The indications are that this time will not be long in coming.

**RAILWAY OP-
PORTUNITIES FOR
AMERICANS.**

Some years ago, this island, in its capacity as a province of Spain—not a colony—realized that railways were essential to the development of the country and its future prosperity. The military roads built by the Spanish government gave fairly good communication across the island, and through a region where the expense of construction of a railway would be so great as to be almost prohibitive. It was planned, therefore, to construct a line around the island, following the coast approximately, and tapping the valleys by means of spur lines wherever business demanded or the character of the country permitted. All the largest cities were on the coast and thus would be connected with the capital. The line consequently would combine the advantages of largest business and easiest construction. It is a pity that time has not served to complete the system as planned.

Bids were requested from capitalists in Europe and America for the construction of a circum-island line under favorable conditions offered by the government of Puerto Rico, but the responses were slow to come and far from numerous. It is hinted that New York and London and Frankfort and the other centers of railway-building capital did not care for a concession which was to be complicated with Spanish authority and might involve large expenses other than the ones to which they were accustomed in other countries. However that may be, but one bid came to Puerto Rico, that one from a French company, with which the provincial authorities finally made terms.

There were two essential features in the charter as it was drawn and accepted by both parties to the agreement. The railway company promised to complete the line completely encircling the island within six years, and the government gave to the company an exclusive franchise for all railway construction in the island for ninety-nine years, and guaranteed interest of eight per cent on the cost of construction. Neither promise has been kept, and the efforts to settle are now in a state of chaos.

**FRENCHMEN
TRY RAILWAY
CONSTRUCTION.**

After the usual fashion in such affairs, the French grantees organized two corporations in Paris, one company to hold the stock of the road and operate it after completion, the other to construct it and be paid in construction bonds. There is a distinct reminiscence of the

Credit Mobilier in the matter. Work on the surveys for the whole line was nearly ended before the crash came. Track laying progressed fairly well at times, when the period of interest payment drew near, so that it was worth while to do something for the sake of encouragement. Three important portions of the line were completed and put into operation under the terms of the franchise. The first and longest is from San Juan to Camuy, a few miles west of Arecibo on the north coast. In its course of 100 kilometers it passes through eight stations, some of them towns of importance. The country is as well developed and as susceptible of cultivation as any in the island, while the transverse valleys through which many mountain streams come down to the ocean are rich, and would be tapped easily by wagon roads or railway branches. There is one through train a day each way between San Juan and Camuy, besides two which cover part of the distance. From Camuy westward there is a gap in the system, until Aguadilla on the west coast is reached, where the line begins again. From this point it extends southward to Hormigueros, passing through Mayaguez,

**EXTENT OF
RAILWAYS IN
PUERTO RICO.**

which is one of the most attractive and progressive towns in the island, third in size. This line has a length of 58 kilometers. Then comes another hiatus until Yauco is reached, on the south coast, where the line begins which has its other terminus eastward at Ponce, a distance of 35 kilometers. The Compañia Francesa has built also a line from the capital eastward to Carolina, 23 kilometers.

The three lines first named have been completed, equipped and set to running within the time and in accordance with the terms of the franchise, as distinct sections of the entire system. The provincial government has accepted them under those terms and the government obligation to guarantee the eight per cent interest on their cost of construction has been recognized. The line running to Carolina, however, has not been accepted by the government as complying with the time and some other conditions, and consequently is continued under the operation of the construction company.

Ever since the first section of the line was accepted by the government, the island treasury has been paying money annually to settle the deficits and bring the interest earning up to eight per cent. At last



HARBOR SCENE, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO.

The projecting point of land shown in the picture is reclaimed ground, constructed from the dredging of the harbor. On it are built the coal docks, gas works, and the homes of many laborers.



THE PASEO, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO.

This beautiful promenade leads from the sea wall where boats land, to the civil prison. To the right are the cliffs and walls which separate the lower part of the city from the older part on the hills.

the time came when the people protested that the railway company had some obligations of its own, to build more line. Then the payment of the interest deficit stopped, with the result that the island treasury is now about \$60,000 behind in that item, and the French investors are in trouble. However, their trouble had begun long before that. Both the companies had failed, and were getting along very comfortably with eight per cent on what they had invested. There was no government minister of railways or any other high officer to watch their claims. They would render accounts of the amount they had spent and the volume of business done, and after a perfunctory auditing the government would settle whatever seemed to be the deficit in earnings at the rate named.

For the last year, the *Compania Francesa* has been threatened with real difficulty. The charter long ago lapsed by its own terms, but it has not been declared forfeited. The home government of Spain retained a sufficient hold on the authority to require itself to be consulted on matters which might make complications with foreign capitalists. But at last the province of Puerto Rico made a strenuous demand

**FORFEITURE
OF CHARTER IS
THREATENED.**

on the mother country that a forfeiture be declared, in order that the system might be turned over to some other capitalists, if any such could be found under the existing circumstances, who would complete the lines so badly needed. If the war had not come when it did, it is likely that this request would have been granted, and the Spanish high courts would have taken action.

The company which owns the railways makes no report for public information, so that no statistics are available as to the volume of its business. Cars of first, second and third class are run, with ticket prices per kilometer respectively 5, 3 and 2 centavos, silver. Freight rates are so high that transportation by ox-carts is found to be cheaper, and all along the railway from the capital to Camuy, for instance, the wagon road at the side of the railway is busy with the freighting of crops and supplies when the trains are half empty. The reduction of freight rates to a fair price would add this traffic to the railway company's business and stimulate trade at the same time.

All the lines are in fairly good shape as to road-bed and equip-

ment, the one from Aguadilla to Hormigueros being the best. The engines and cars are French, light of course, but sufficient for the light grades and light traffic on a narrow gauge line. The gauge of the track is one meter and twenty centimeters, or forty-seven and one-fourth inches. Speed of trains is regulated by the government, and ranges

**GOVERNMENT
SUPERVISION
OF RAILWAYS.**

from twelve to twenty kilometers an hour. The stations are sufficient for the traffic, and altogether, so far as the line extends, it may be considered a very fair railway system for the little island.

In addition to the lines named, the same company has built a branch from Anasco on the west coast, a station half-way between Aguadilla and Hormigueros, to San Sebastian and Lares, 35 kilometers northeast into the hills. It is of one-meter gauge. Then there is a local tram line, operated by steam, of the same gauge, from San Juan to Rio Piedras, through the popular suburb of the capital, Santurci. The length of this line is eleven kilometers. Another tram of the same sort starts at Catano, a suburb just across the harbor from San Juan, and extends to Bayamon, ten kilometers distant.

I have been thus explicit to name every mile of railway in the island open for public service, because the maps of Puerto Rico are totally unreliable in this detail, and many of the descriptions equally so. With a fine confidence in the promises of the construction syndicate, every map issued since the charter for the circum-island line was granted has shown it completed, and even the latest maps are following the same blunder.

In addition to the ones I name, tram lines may have existed at one time from the city of Ponce to the Playa, its port, and from Guayama to Arroyo. At any rate, along the roads connecting those places, at intervals one may see outcroppings of a vein which lead to the belief that by excavation other rails might be found. It is not likely that isolated rails would appear every half mile unless they were connected with some others under the surface. Some of the large sugar "centrals" have railway lines to bring cane to the mill, with locomotives and freight cars in abundance, but they are not for general traffic.

Some one will have to reorganize and complete the railway around the island of Puerto Rico.

The great military road across the island of Puerto Rico is a work of the highest credit to the engineers who built it, but of very little to the Spanish government. It was built for no love of the people, not to assist the development of commerce and facilitate easy access to the sugar and coffee plantations, but only as a military affair in order that troops might be rushed to any point when insurrection was threatened. This does not alter the fact that the road would be praised by any traveler who journeyed over it, as one of the finest of such works. There is a total of some 250 miles of government-built highway in the island, of which two-thirds is included in the portions connecting Ponce with Guayama, San Juan and Utuado.

**THE FAMOUS
MILITARY ROAD
OF PUERTO RICO.**

The construction of this through such a mountain region has been a work of great expense. There have been mountain passes and defiles to thread, chasms to cross and marshes to fill. The construction of these roads begins with the grading, which is done as carefully as for a railway, although, of course, much heavier grades are permissible. There is then put on a heavy layer of crushed rock and brick, which, after having been well packed and rounded, is covered with a layer of earth. This is well packed also and upon the whole is spread a layer of ground limestone, which is pressed and rolled until it forms almost a glossy surface. This makes a road perfect alike for carriages, footmen, cavalry, or bicycles. It is not muddy or slippery in rainy weather nor is it dusty in dry seasons. No freshet is sufficient to wash it out.

The bridges throughout the entire length of the road are of solid masonry, built on arches to the full width of the highway and paved over the bridges exactly like the road itself, so that one does not discover any difference in passing over such bridges. The roads are carefully ditched and drained on both sides.

All along these highways, at intervals of about six miles, stand substantial buildings erected for the purpose of sheltering the civil guards of the island, the Spanish constabulary which has served as an island police force. These houses are constructed of solid masonry, of uniform and suitable architecture and of varying size, according to the demands likely to be

**SHELTERS FOR
THE SOLDIERS
ON MARCH.**

made upon them. They are not post-houses for travelers, but are intended entirely for government purposes. When soldiers were sent across the island on account of threatened insurrection, these were the barracks at which they stopped during their marches.

The first fine road which the American army found when it came ashore in Puerto Rico was that from the Playa or port of Ponce to the city itself. Here the way was crowded with traffic between the cities. Thousands of American troops had advanced into the island by roads extending beyond Ponce, and they had to be kept supplied from the provisions and munitions of war landed at the port. Hundreds of ox-carts traveled up and down that highway day after day, bearing the heaviest traffic that could ever be concentrated on it, and yet the road showed no signs of deterioration. More than anything else in the island, it was the sight of this perfect road to welcome them, with the excellent docks and town of the Playa at one end and the city of Ponce at the other, that sent the American soldiers on their way feeling that they had come to a favored isle. The first impression of Puerto Rico was very different from the first impression they received of Cuba.

One may cross the island from Ponce or Guayama to San Juan, either by diligence or by public coaches. In times of peace coaches leave each city daily, connecting at Cayey and exchanging passengers and mails, making the trip between San Juan and Guayama in sixteen hours and between San Juan and Ponce in twenty hours. These coaches, however, carry so much local business from village to village

**SPEED OF TRAVEL
ACROSS
THE ISLAND.**

and run at such unpleasant hours, day and night, that they are by no means the most comfortable method of travel. By choice one should travel by diligence, which is by no means expensive, thus gaining time, comfort and the pleasure of a daylight trip.

The carriage for a journey from Ponce to San Juan would leave the former city at five in the morning and at eight that night would be in the capital. When it is remembered that a large part of the way is up hill, through a mountainous country, this does not seem bad driving for a distance of ninety-seven miles. Horses are changed four or five times and sometimes oftener during the distance, accord-

ing to the progress being made. The native drivers are altogether merciless and lash their little horses constantly, so that the pace is always a run. There is no slacking of speed up hill until the strength of the team fails, and down hill it is a mad race to see whether horses or carriage will arrive at the bottom first.

For those who are not in so much of a hurry, the journey can be pleasantly broken and extended to two or three days. The saving of speed, however, does not do the horses any good, for they are urged in the same way until the halting place is reached. The passenger is brought to his destination that much sooner and has a longer time to wait than if he were going to continue his journey on the same day.

Our immediate party, which drove from Ponce to San Juan by way of Guayama while yet the island was under Spanish dominion, was composed of Messrs. Root of the New York Sun, Millard of the Herald, Dill of the Tribune, Thompson of the Associated Press, Walker of Harper's Weekly, Mrs. White and myself. We left Ponce at three in the afternoon of a beautiful August day, and at six o'clock that night were at the beautiful Baños de Coamo, twenty-six miles away.

A CAVALCADE
OF WAR
CORRESPONDENTS.

Strangely enough, the first mile or two of the road, within the outlying parts of the city of Ponce, is abominably rough and ill-kept. This is because it is in the city, and, consequently, not a part of the Spanish royal road through the island. Once the city was left behind, there was no further interruption in the perfect pleasure of the drive. Without ever a jar from rut or pebble, the carriage whirled on, leaving the kilometer posts behind so rapidly that one could hardly keep account of them. Here was a stone arch bridge spanning a dashing mountain stream of clearest water; now some children scattered to the sides of the road in order to give us right of way through a little village of a dozen native houses. The fields were fields of sugar-cane in every direction, the plantation-house showing among the hills, some distance from the road, with a picturesque lane leading back to it. A grove of cocoanut palms or royal palms shaded the plantation-house and the sugar mill, with its tall brick chimney. Bananas, mangoes,

and other tropical fruits surrounded every little cabin by the roadside.

The Spanish engineers had looked forward to the health of the soldiers and the speed of their marching, even if they cared nothing for their comfort. Mile after mile the road was shaded by a perfect network of leaves from the trees on either side, whose branches met in the middle above our heads, forming an umbrageous arch through which the cavalcade sped on. There was color effect to add to the other beauties of the scene. Rapid of growth and dense of shade, the trees selected for this arch were the beautiful ones known in America,

**AN AVENUE
OF FLOWERING
TREES.**

when one can be seen, as the royal poinciana. In the Spanish tropics the tree is variously known as arbol flamboyant, flaming tree, or arbol de fuego, tree of fire. It bears blossoms of the most gorgeous crimson, in such profusion that the tree itself seems a mass of flame, justifying whatever name is selected for it. It would be impossible to conceive a more picturesque avenue than one thus shaded. Song birds were all about, and for a background to the whole scene, one could choose to look back at the sea or forward to the mountains.

Dusk comes suddenly in the tropics, and it was beginning to darken when we drew into the dooryard of the famous old hotel at the baths of Coamo.

The mineral baths of Coamo are not immediately adjoining the city of the same name nor even on the military road itself. Two or three miles before reaching the city the carriages turn sharply to the right along a little river, and, wandering down the slopes of a wood road into the valley for two miles more, reach the most famous resort in the island. For hundreds of years the healing properties of these mineral springs have attracted visitors from a long distance. For at least a century facilities have been provided there for the wayfarers who sought relief from their maladies and desired hospitality convenient to the springs.

The present hotel and bath-houses date back thirty or forty years, but remain in excellent condition and offer comforts and even attractions to the most exacting tourist. The hotel, with its colony of stables, servants' quarters and other necessary buildings, occupy the plateau perhaps 100 feet above the river. The bed rooms, parlors and great

verandas, where guests make themselves comfortable in all weathers, are on the second floor, above any threat of dampness from the ground at night. All rooms open to the wide galleries or verandas and the guest can take his choice between outdoor and indoor parlors. The kitchen and dining-room are in a separate building, connected with the main building by a covered way.

**THE HOTEL
AND BATH HOUSES
OF COAMO.**

To reach the bath-houses one must walk perhaps 200 feet through a series of roofed galleries, paved with stone, and gradually descending by scores of stone steps worn smooth by years of use, almost to the level of the river. At the bottom of this picturesque passage way is a bath-house so well equipped that it would find favor in the most famous watering-place of Europe. The floors and walls are of solid stone, kept immaculately clean. The tubs are hewn out of single blocks of stone and the larger bathing pools are tiled throughout. Such bath tubs are never seen in America. They are four feet deep and of the same width, and in some instances eight or ten feet long. Nearly every room has two of these tubs, so that one may step immediately from a bath of hot water to one of cold, both tubs being filled by the attendant before the patron is called to the room. Every form of bath that ingenuity has devised can be found here, the most modern and complicated needle showers adjoining that most simple and primitive appliance of all, the big tub.

The springs here utilized so successfully flow in considerable volume and the supply has never failed in any season. The hot springs have a temperature of 117 degrees Fahrenheit. They hold in solution sulphur, iron and lime and have proven of equal value for baths and for internal use. They are of special service in skin diseases and rheumatism. The service at the baths is thoroughly satisfactory and no one need fear any lapse of cleanliness or attention.

For fifty years Coamo Baños has been a favorite resort throughout the summer, not only for the people of this island, but for those of Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, the Caribbees and even Venezuela and Guiana, who have sought relief from their own hotter climate. The hotel is arranged to accommodate about one hundred guests, and summer after

**AN ALL-THE-
YEAR-ROUND
RESORT.**

summer its capacity has been tested to the limit. If the same tide of tourist travel from the south can be maintained there during the summers under the American regime, and a new stream turned there from the United States during the winters, it would seem as if the proprietor had in his possession that most desirable thing, a business whose season is all the year around.

The newspaper colony regretted that it was hardly possible to take more than two baths each, between six o'clock in the evening and eight o'clock in the morning, when the next stage of the journey was begun. For the next day's drive we were compelled to abandon the military road, for the unimproved country roads of the island. Between Coamo and Aibonito were the mountains where Spanish forces still held the passes, facing the American troops, who were resting in their camp. It would have been a longer drive in miles, but an easier one, to reach Guayama by way of Aibonito and Cayey, but we had to yield to the exigencies of military law and not attempt a violation of the protocol.

There is a country road extending southward from Coamo to Santa Isabel, near the coast, and that was the route of the next stage of our journey. The distance was ten miles and we had been taught to dread it by the stories we had heard of its roughness. As a matter of fact, it had been much more abused than its character deserved.

**A GENUINE
COUNTRY ROAD
IN PUERTO RICO.**

Those of us who had been accustomed to the country roads of the United States at all seasons of the year saw nothing bad in this. The mud holes were no worse than the mud holes on the main roads near a prairie town of the central states. The hills were not as stony and not as steep as those to which we were accustomed. This was in the deep woods and the least cultivated part of the island, but the foliage of flowers and trees gave novel scenery as we drove and the day was a beautiful one.

The road direct from Ponce to Santa Isabel along the coast is much of the same character and we could have driven it without great difficulty. It was a matter of choice the day before to take the longer route by way of Coamo Baños.

From Santa Isabel to Guayama the road follows near the coast

all the way, a distance of some eighteen miles. There is but one town worth naming in the distance, the village of Salinas. Salinas and Santa Isabel are towns of, perhaps, 500 each, with no business houses except the little shops and markets necessary to supply the daily wants of the people. There is the inevitable church with the cross and chimes, Santa Isabel being favored with a new one not yet completed, work on which had been interrupted by the war.

The drive from Coamo to Guayama being considered a hard one, we were treated to a change of horses after we passed Salinas. The system by which the change of horses was assured was a novel one to me. We had come from Ponce to Coamo with a driver whose contract ended at that point. At the baths we dealt with the hotel-keeper, who agreed to put us into Guayama without difficulty in spite of the roads, which he declared to be execrable. About two hours before daylight he sent forward a team of fresh horses, in charge of a boy, who rode a third, and they spent the morning leisurely reaching a half-way point on the road. Then they were turned into a field to graze and when we came along a few hours later, our team pretty well spent, the change of horses was ready for us.

In times of peace post horses may sometimes be found awaiting such demands, but it is quite a customary practice to conduct the business in this way. Those

**SYSTEM OF
CHANGING
POST HORSES.**

of the party who did not stipulate so carefully for fresh horses on the journey were taken through without a change, with a great deal of discomfort resulting to themselves and the teams.

The week of waiting at Guayama was not an unpleasant one in spite of the fact that we overcrowded the small hotels and had to forage for ourselves in the shops and markets to supplement the hotel bill of fare. It was a never-failing surprise to us in the hotels of the smaller towns, that the people took no advantage of the excellent fruit and vegetable supplies available. With little difficulty we were able to obtain delicious melons and other fruits, which were never served in the hotels unless we brought them. In addition, we found French, Italian and German preserved fruits at the grocery stores, and, altogether, were able to combine a very satisfactory bill of fare.

The drive from Guayama to Cayey was the slowest on record

among the Puertorriqueñan drivers. General Brooke and his staff, riding ahead, set the pace, beyond which none of us could go. Marching cavalry finds a steady walk quite rapid enough for the horses, and so our drivers for the first time in their lives found no opportunity to use the whip. Inasmuch as no noonday halt was expected, the newspaper contingent carried its own provisions for the journey and feasted on bacon sandwiches, cheese and cantaloupe, washed down with water from the cold mountain springs.

A few of the stone bridges through the mountains had been partly dismantled by the retreating Spaniards, by the removal of the key-stones from the arches. The fact that they had done no more to destroy the highway seemed to prove that they had a sentimental pride in the beautiful road and did not care to wreck it even when they were aban-

**THE MILITARY
ROAD IN
THE MOUNTAINS.**

doning the island. There were a score of places where the bridges spanned great chasms or the road was built on a shelf hewn out of the side of a precipice, where a charge of dynamite would have so destroyed it as to make an interruption of days necessary before any progress could be made. At such places the possibilities of defense against an American advance were beyond estimate. As it was, the squad of engineers ahead of our party required but a few moments to bridge the little gaps left where arches were broken, so that there was no perceptible delay.

From Guayama to the highest point in the pass through the mountains, the road winds upward through a splendid valley and along the slopes of the mountain peak caled El Torito. For miles it is possible to look back through the valley to the sea, the view comprehending one of the most beautiful tropical landscapes imaginable. Sugar plantations in the lowlands and coffee plantations on the hill-sides show a high state of cultivation, all beautified by tropical foliage and roofed by the tropical sky.

**A VIEW ACROSS
THE CENTRAL
VALLEY.**

After passing the crest of the range and starting on the descent into the central valley of the island, it was possible for the cavalry squad and General Brooke to make better speed and we looked forward to increasing our own pace. By a mischance of the road, however, and

an ill-timed yielding of the right of way to some wagons of the army train, our carriages found themselves pocketed with a dozen of the six-mule teams and ponderous wagons ahead of us. Mile after mile we crawled along at what seemed a snail's pace, the road following the very edge of the precipices, with no space to pass on either side. A thousand feet below and miles away, we could see the town of Cayey in a smiling valley given over to sugar plantations. Across the valley rose the second range of mountains, a lesser chain which separates from the main ridge, and far away beyond these was a glimpse of the blue north Atlantic ocean.

At last a little plateau grown up to small shrubbery gave the road more width and we made haste to pass the wagons. By this time the cavalry had left us four miles behind and almost had reached the valley which lay far below, with only two or three miles separating the squad from its prospective triumphal entry into Cayey. We must not miss the sight. All restraint was removed from the impatient drivers. The horses were fresh after their slow journey. The road was perfect without an irregularity sufficient even to jar the wheels. We could not see more than fifty yards ahead on the tortuous highway winding down the mountain side, but we must get to the bottom.

Down went the lashes and then began the maddest race that the hills of Puerto Rico ever saw. There are traditions of such driving by the mountain stage-drivers of our own west, but I am unable to believe that there was ever a wilder dash for five miles down hill than this. When we reached the foot of the long descent and caught the cavalry just in time to join them in the procession, we looked at one another in exhilaration, but frankly admitting that we were glad to be safe on the level.

**A FIVE-MILE
DASH
DOWN HILL.**

The march from Cayey to Caguas crossed the interior valley, which includes the northern half of the province of Guayama, through a succession of highly cultivated sugar plantations of the most productive character. There was picturesque scenery to insure the day's pleasure, but no such mountains as those between Guayama and Cayey.

We reached Caguas about 2:30 in the afternoon and found it a larger place than Cayey, with a beautiful plaza, in which Spanish

troops were swarming. Two thousand were quartered in the barracks of this city. The hotels of Caguas proved to be the worst we had found in the island and the smallest. For himself and his staff officers, General Brooke obtained a fine private residence for headquarters, while his cavalry escort and army train went into camp near the city. It remained for the newspaper contingent to find quarters for themselves. One hotel accommodated three of the men and then overflowed. Mrs. White and I found quarters in a servants' room, with

**PRIMITIVE
ACCOMMODATIONS
AT CAGUAS.**

two cots. Then, as a special concession, the proprietor offered her a cot in a room with his wife, in order that the rest of us might all sleep on the stone floor of the little room. One of our men was sick with malarial fever contracted in Ponce and it seemed imperative that better accommodations be found. Four hours of daylight remained and we decided that the flesh-pots of the capital, twenty-six miles away, would suit us all better, if we could reach them.

It was a delicate matter to suggest such a thing as preceding the commanding general through the enemy's country into the enemy's capital. It was delegated to me to broach the subject, with a stipulation that if by so doing I lost favor with General Brooke, thereby destroying my sources of information, my colleagues would divide with me everything that came to them, so that my work would not suffer thereby. Before the choice was made I attempted to convince them that any one could execute such an errand better than myself, but as each one took exactly the same position it was finally decided that I should offer myself for a victim to possible military displeasure.

It was indeed suggested that the discomforts which Mrs. White would undergo should be used as an argument with General Brooke, but that was the one argument impossible for me to use. It was Mrs. White's pride throughout all of her experiences, alike in Cuba and Puerto Rico, that no one had ever been able to suggest that she was a handicap in any undertaking. She took the difficulties with the same spirit that others took them, recognizing the unusual privilege she had to witness the operations of war. She would have resented promptly the use of her presence as an argument why special privilege should be granted. As a matter of fact, we realized quite well that

to offer such a plea might properly draw the query from General Brooke why she was there at all, if she was to cumber the movements of himself and the correspondents.

I found the commanding general dining with his staff and put the question bluntly to him, if it would be permissible, now that we had passed the enemy's advance line and were within their territory, for the newspaper contingent to precede him on the way. I explained that no accommodations for all of us were available in town, even of the most primitive sort, and that Mr. Millard's sickness demanded better shelter than we could find. We do not forget his courtesy in the reply. Without hesitation he said, "By all means go to where you can be most comfortable. If you can get horses on such short notice, go ahead until you find a place where you can get proper shelter. I don't want you to undergo any more discomfort than is necessary, after all you have seen in the Santiago campaign."

A COURTESY FROM
THE COMMAND-
ING GENERAL.

I bolted down stairs to the little group of correspondents waiting anxiously for the verdict. The news was reassuring. In ten minutes we had our drivers searching for horses and by four o'clock our carriages were loaded again and we were starting on the last stage of the journey. We knew, if General Brooke did not, that the phraseology of his permission meant that we must reach the capital that night, for there was no place which would serve for shelter until we reached the city.

The journey began hopefully enough, with a five-mile dash through the cane-fields. The military road was perfect here, as it had been throughout the earlier portion of the trip. Then we came into a country of hills and my team began to fag in spite of the energies of the driver. It was evident that they had not been fresh when we started. We had been leading the procession of three carriages until that time. This position was chosen for me by my companions, because no one knew what sort of a reception we might meet from the Spanish soldiery along the road, and the others of the party had no knowledge of the Spanish language.

The threat of early darkness began to trouble us and it was evident that our team could not take us into the capital in many hours.

We drew to one side of the road and told the others to go ahead. They were reluctant to leave us thus, abandoned near nightfall in the

**A SOMEWHAT
LONESOME
EXPERIENCE.**

heart of the enemy's country, but there was no help for it. We waved good-bye to them and saw them disappear down the road among the trees. Our progress continued slowly for several miles farther, during which we did not see a single soldier. Then at the top of a long hill, in spite of our protests, the driver lashed his horses into a run and we went careening down the slope. At the bottom was the longest bridge in Puerto Rico, a stone-arched structure perhaps 300 feet in length, spanning a stream which wandered through the valley nearly a hundred feet below. This splendid piece of masonry, the most difficult of all the military road, was built many years ago and remains in perfect condition. In the middle of the bridge the team came to a dead halt, unable to stagger another step.

"Muy malado, muy infermo," said the driver, shrugging his shoulders, "very bad, very sick." He took the harness off the horses, led them to the end of the bridge, opened a convenient gate that led into the neighboring field and turned them out to graze. We sat on the rail of the bridge and looked into the stream below.

After awhile a little boy came along and the driver gave him some instructions, which started him up the road in the direction we had been traveling.

More time passed and we saw two Spanish soldiers coming toward us on the road. They came to the middle of the bridge and halted to question us. One was a corporal, the other a

**THE ENEMY
PROVES TO
BE HARMLESS.**

private. They were fine, big fellows, armed with Mausers, and apparently fine soldiers. They questioned us closely, extracting no information whatever, for we assumed to be ignorant of a single word of Spanish. We shrugged our shoulders, smiled, looked pleasant and puzzled, but could answer nothing. The driver was evidently scared. The corporal wanted to know who we were, why we were there, and where we were going. He wanted to know when the American general was coming. We were unable to tell him anything.

Finally, Mrs. White noticed that the soldier had a bandage around

his right hand and that his hand was badly swollen. She motioned a question and he unwrapped it, showing a very bad bayonet wound. It was dressed with some green leaves and no other attention had been given it. Mrs. White sought her modest stock of simple remedies, dressed the wound with witch hazel, bound it in clean linen, and gave him the remaining portion of the liniment. There was no further trouble. They bowed their thanks, expressed their gratitude with the utmost politeness and went on their way.

Strangely enough, we heard of this little incident afterward in San Juan. It was circulated there as a subject of interest for gossip among the Spanish forces, and we were told that the soldiers were exceedingly grateful, saying that no Spanish woman would have done for them what the American did.

After a wait of two hours on this lonesome bridge, our driver declared his horses sufficiently recovered to continue. We made slow progress through the dusk, until at last a mile or two before reaching Rio Piedras the youngster who had gone ahead long before met us with a fresh team of horses. To exchange required but a few moments. The exhausted team, according to the practice of drivers, was turned into the adjacent field to graze until their master should pick them up on his return journey a day or two later. It was but a short drive then to Rio Piedras. We stopped at a little hotel to inquire if our companions had gone on to the capital, and, finding no word left for us, we continued toward our destination.

**AT LAST
A TEAM OF
FRESH HORSES.**

The road was level nearly all the way, so that, although darkness had fallen, there was no cessation of our speed. The nine miles were covered very rapidly and it was only nine o'clock when we clattered along the paved streets of the city in a sudden shower of rain and drew up at the door of Hotel Inglaterra. Prompt inquiry at the hotel office developed two important facts: dinner was not ended and our friends had reserved a room for us. It was the end of our journey across Puerto Rico.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY IN PUERTO RICO.

Similar Agricultural Conditions in All Our Newly Annexed Islands—The Institution of the Sugar "Central"—A Scotchman in Puerto Rico—Heavy Investments by London Financiers—How the "Central" Deals with Each Farmer—Scientific Sugar Cultivation as Contrasted with More Primitive Methods—Plantation Sugar Mills of the West Indies—The Home of a Sugar Planter—Wages of Unskilled Laborers in Puerto Rico—How the Laborers Live and Work.

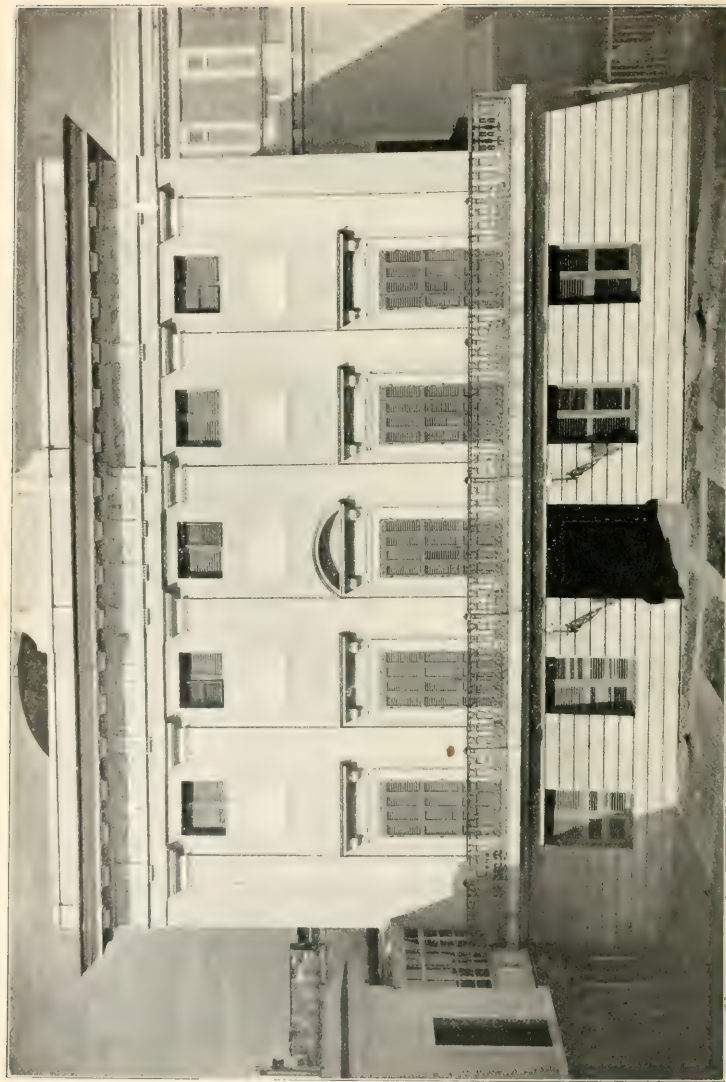
IT MAY simplify the problems of colonial government for the United States to some extent, that all of our experiments are to be tried in island groups of similar climate and agricultural conditions and approximately the same latitude. What one learns about sugar or coffee or tobacco or minor agricultural products of the tropics in one island, may therefore apply with almost equal accuracy to the others, except as modified by peculiar local conditions which must be noted in their proper place. Consequently, although this chapter relates specifically to the cultivation of cane sugar in Puerto Rico, most of the essential facts may be transferred to apply to the same industry in Cuba and the Hawaiian islands, in each of which the cultivation of sugar is the principal industry, as it is in Puerto Rico, and even the Philippines, where the same industry is by no means a minor one. In the chapters on agriculture in the Philippine islands, already I have called attention to the matter following in these pages, and again in the chapter on the same industry in Cuba and the Hawaiian islands, I shall refer back to this chapter for detailed information upon the cultivation and marketing of cane sugar.

In the modern system of sugar cultivation in this island, where that is the greatest of crops, the "central," has been an important factor, and is becoming more important all the time. It is the great



A REGATTA DAY BEFORE THE WAR.

This photograph was taken in the harbor of San Juan de Puerto Rico shows the numerous craft dressed in the flags of all nations in honor of the
 It was almost the last time that the flags of the United States and Spain floated side by side in unity.



THE GOVERNOR'S PALACE, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO.

In the days of the Spanish régime this was the captain-general's palace, virtually the colonial capital building. The wing in the foreground is the public office portion of the building.

mill for grinding cane, owned by a concern which makes that function its specialty, relieving the grower from the necessity of grinding his own product. Prepared for the work of a whole region instead of a single plantation, it is possible for such an institution to take advantage of every improvement in machinery and equip the mill with the most perfect appliances. Scientists can be employed to study for improved methods of extracting the juice from the cane with greatest rapidity and most completely, and then of bringing it into the best condition for the various processes that precede shipment to the refineries. Where the central has been introduced, it has won favor and profit for all concerned. Where it is known, its friends see no more need of argument for it than does the owner of a flour mill in our wheat regions.

**"CENTRALS"
FOR GRINDING
SUGAR-CANE.**

I have had the pleasure of an acquaintance with Mr. W. S. Marr of Puerto Rico, a Scotchman who has been for a few years the general manager of the Central de Canovanas, the largest sugar factory in the island. It is not far from Carolina, some twenty miles east of the capital, on the north side of the island, and in one of the best sugar countries of Puerto Rico. Mr. Marr has been good enough to give me some of the essential facts about that enterprise and the central as a general proposition, which will make important information for anyone who looks toward sugar investments here. His information, with that of other specialists in sugar whom I have questioned, is of the highest authority on the local conditions to be met in this island.

The Central de Canovanas is owned by the Colonial Sugar company of London, or, rather, by an inner corporation made up of members of that great concern. The Colonial company is known throughout the sugar islands of the West Indies, large and small alike, as well as in Demerara or British Guiana. Its interests sweep in a great circle through Cuba, Santo Domingo, Puerto Rico, the Windward and Leeward islands, all the way to Trinidad and then into the continental cane fields of South America. It was not to be expected that it would neglect such a rich opening as Puerto Rico.

**THE LONDON
COLONIAL
COMPANY.**

The Central de Canovanas was built by the investment of local

capital, stimulated by the energy of some Puertorriquenans who had lived in the United States, and by some energetic Americans who had moved to this island. The investment was a large one and the profits were not well husbanded in the beginning, so that the time came when a debt had to be met and the Colonial company took the property into its own care for administration. The equity of the original owners is not wiped out, but it is not in their hands at present, the English company having a sufficient amount of the stock to control it.

The capacity of grinding in such a mill is about twenty-five tons of cane an hour, or, more specifically, the product of 3,500 acres. Up to the present time, the acreage of the plantations adjacent to the mill, which depend upon it for their grinding, is but 2,000, so that the mill has not had to run to its full capacity except at times of special haste. A considerable increase in the acreage was expected within the last two years, but the unusually high price of cattle intervened to stop it. A large amount of pasture land which was expected to be turned into cane fields, became more valuable in its present form, and so was not planted to sugar cane. If shifting values change this condition or new areas are opened to cultivation in the neighborhood of the central, undoubtedly it will have all the work to do that it can accomplish.

The company buys the sugar cane outright, paying for it on the fifteenth and thirtieth of each month according to the average price of sugar in the San Juan market for the fifteen days preceding. The farmer hauls his cane to the door of the central, has it weighed, and on the day of payment gets his money without any further concern.

Almost all authorities in Puerto Rico agree that all interests are served by the separation of grinding from the growing of the crop.

**SPECIALIZING
MAKES
PROFIT.**

The farmer gets more for his cane when he sells it to the central than he would if he ground it himself. By its improved methods and perfected machinery, the central gets so much more out of the cane that it is able to pay the farmer more than he would get otherwise, and still make a large profit for its own stockholders, when properly administered and handling such large quantities of cane. Centralization proves its economy here as it does in industries at home. Further-

more, the farmer can raise more cane upon a given acreage when his attention is concentrated on that one branch of the industry than he can when diverted first to the running of a small mill for the grinding of his own crop and then to the marketing of it to best advantage.

Scientific Sugar Cultivation.

In the whole island there are but four or five centrals of any consequence, that of Canovanas being much the largest and best equipped. In it are employed the best sugar experts to be obtained, the chemists being men of highest training and education, to say nothing of salaries. Their studies are productive of constant improvement and increase of sugar obtained from a given amount of cane. Their tests are all absolute, by chemical rule and formula, no "rule of thumb" being countenanced. In this field of labor here, no less than in Hawaii and Cuba, many a young American just from the universities will find an opportunity within the next few years to prove that he is a practical chemist, and, if he becomes a sugar expert, to earn a large salary. Such centrals are going to multiply rapidly.

On the hundreds of plantations where sugar mills are run for the grinding of their own crop, and even in some of the smaller centrals, one does not find such a scientific system of manipulation. As Mr. Marr puts it, "The foreman watches the color and the flow and the crystallization till things seem right, and then the next process is begun. Our results show that where scientifically correct methods are employed, the product is enough larger and enough better to pay well. It is this condition that will make plantation mills obsolete and drive the grinding into the centrals when the latter are in every community where sugar is raised."

EXTRACTING
THE JUICE FROM
SUGAR-CANE.

In the Central de Canovanas, all the employes and hands are Puertoriquenans except the chief engineer, who is a Scotchman. The company owns and operates about twenty miles of railway, the lines radiating from the factory into the adjacent plantations, for the purpose of hauling the cane to be ground. The tracks wander in and out among the cane fields just as they do in the great Ewa plantation near

Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian islands, and the scene is much the same. But here in Puerto Rico all the locomotives are run by native engineers and firemen, as is the case on the passenger railways of the island. They seem quite competent to do the work, have few accidents, and under the supervision of the chief engineer are able to repair their locomotives almost as handily as an American.

In going about the island, one finds the sugar mills of the plantations everywhere in sight. Usually they stand with the other houses and sheds of the little realm of the sugar baron, a few hundred yards from the highway, the lane leading to them winding through a field of waving cane, and ending in a grove of royal palms or poinciana or some other tropic tree. From the field or factory or some place comes a whiff of sweetness to the nostrils that reminds one of the breeze from a candy factory. The air is impregnated with sugar. The big brick chimney of the mill towers above the trees and roofs, not as picturesque as the old windmills that serve a similar purpose in Barbados and the other islands of the Caribbees, but perhaps more utilitarian. The little houses of the plantation hands are at a distance from the great house of the magnate, usually at the other side of the factory. The big houses have been quiet of late. Those of them owned by Spanish citizens, or many of them, have been empty while their owners were seeking pleasure in San Sebastian or some other Spanish resort, in preference to a possible blockade with discomforts in Puerto Rico. They left in ship-loads during the few months just prior to the war. But the places are there, many of them great, rambling structures of Spanish architecture, modified by island conditions, broad verandahs all about, low roofed, with tiles of red to keep the house cool and vines over all. These houses are not barren of comfort. They are lightly furnished as they should be, but easy rockers abound, hammocks are there, and a piano is sure to be found. In front of the house the shade comes from the *arbol flamboyant*, the royal palm, the cocoanut palm, or any one of half a dozen almost as beautiful. In the house yard are bananas, cocoanuts, oranges, limes, pineapples, mangoes, and a dozen other fruits whose names would be strange, while the kitchen garden will raise delicious vegetables and add melons to the list of fruits.

With a winter climate as perfect as could be imagined, and a summer far pleasanter than that of our northern prairie States, surely one could imagine things less pleasant than to be a sugar baron in Puerto Rico.

Wages of the unskilled laborers employed in the canefields of Puerto Rico—unskilled at any rate except for the knack of handling the machete and doing the simple work of the field—

have been from 50 to 63 centavos a day, varying with the demand for labor, the strength of the laborer and the location of the plantation. Mr. Marr, the Scotch

**WAGES OF THE
FARM
LABORERS.**

manager of the Central de Canovanas, tells me that wages never have fluctuated with the fluctuations of the rate of foreign exchange, nor has the manner of living practiced on the plantations varied from the same cause. The exception to this has been in the cost of rice, which is a staple food of the laborers and largely imported. As exchange became higher, the price of rice rose and the ability of the laborer to purchase it diminished. Just about enough corn is raised for the local demands, some years producing enough for export to Cuba. This staple food therefore has fluctuated but little. The cotton goods, from which the plantation laborers make their clothes, have to be imported and vary slightly in cost with the fluctuations of exchange. But they do not wear many clothes, and if cotton becomes too expensive, it is not a great hardship in this climate for these people to economize rigidly in its use.

The regular wage-day on the plantations is at the end of the week, but laborers are permitted to draw their earnings daily if they choose. They are improvident in the extreme, and often have to obtain advance orders on the stores when they come to work in the morning, in order to get food for the same day's breakfast, breakfast meaning here, as in other Spanish countries, the meal just before midday. The early cup of coffee answers till that time. The work day is

**SHORT HOURS
AND
CHEAP LABOR.**

only seven or eight hours long, and, measured by the energy of the man, the demands of his house and table and the faithfulness with which he skips a day whenever one of the multitudinous holidays and church days gives him a chance, the rate of wages is probably enough. "Cheap labor" really

is not cheap according to its productiveness, any more than it is in other countries where similar conditions exist, Mexico for instance.

Mr. Marr has some ideas on the local labor problem which may sound strange at home.

"The Puertoriquenans could make more money," he says, "if the whole family would work in the field. That is the practice in the English islands of the West Indies, among negro and coolie labor alike. Father and mother and son and daughter work side by side on the plantations. But here the women will hardly go into the fields at all. A laborer's wife does hardly anything but her household duties, and she teaches her daughter the same thing, and even the sons do not go to work till they are almost grown. As a rule, the blacker the man, the better the laborer. This is true except as to the English negroes who are here, from Demerara and the Caribbees, they being just about the worst labor we have. But there is no doubt that plantation labor here needs the black infusion in it to be effective. What the fact would be if we had to deal with white labor of some other race than Spanish, I am unable to say, for there are none such here. But we don't care for much white Spanish blood in our hands."

**HOW PLANTATION
LABORERS
LIVE.**

Plantation laborers on the sugar estates do not have barracks or houses furnished them on the place, but live wherever they like. Sometimes the owner of the estate sets aside a bit of land where the laborer may build a house and plant a little garden patch. The house always belongs to the hand, however, even though he may vacate it and move to the next plantation. Such titles are not valuable enough to worry about, as the houses under such circumstances are apt to be but a frame of poles with a thatch and walls of wattle. When a man builds a better house on a sugar estate, he is considered one of the faithful retainers, and a fixture.

CHAPTER XXVII.

LITERATURE, THE DRAMA, AND THE HOTELS.

Book Stores and Publishing Houses of Puerto Rico—Spanish Translations of American Novels—Local Production of Literature by Island Authors—The Public Library of San Juan—What a Geographer of Puerto Rico Thinks of His Island and His Fellow-Citizens—The Theaters of Ponce and San Juan—American Enterprise Not Far Behind the American Army—"Uncle Tom's Cabin" in Spanish—The Hotels of Puerto Rico—The Rooms and the Food—Two Meals a Day—Spanish Cooking and Island Markets—Inns in the Country Villages—The Tourist Resort of Coamo Banos.

THE printing offices and book shops of Puerto Rico rather surprised me by their excellence, after I had been disappointed in the newspapers. Senor Otero of Ponce apologized for his meager stock of books in English, with the explanation that the officers and men of the American army had bought almost everything he had. But he was the agent for the New York house of the Appletons, he continued, and his stock would be replenished by the first steamer. As it was, several well-known books were on the shelves, and if one wanted to read Spanish the selection was a large one. I found a very good edition of "El Prisionero de Zenda," by "Antonio" Hope, and it was in this same Bazar Otero that Richard Harding Davis and Stephen Crane were confronted upon their arrival with posters advertising "Soldiers of Fortune" and "The Red Badge of Courage."

Book Shops of San Juan.

In San Juan, the capital, there are at least three or four book and stationery stores of note which are more than creditable to the place. They are connected with printing and publishing concerns in most cases. They carry stocks of imported goods from Madrid, Barcelona and Paris, most of the books being in Spanish or French. All of

the classics of Spain and France are carried in both languages and the modern French novel occupies a prominent place on the shelves.

**FRENCH NOVELS
ARE
POPULAR.**

The novels of Hugo and Dumas are very popular in the island. Few books in Italian are sold, but the Italian classics are carried in Spanish and in French translations. Beautiful editions of the "Divina Commedia" of Dante were for sale in either language, but the translations were in prose instead of verse. No American poets appeared in the stores, but Byron's popularity was evidenced by the multitude of his works on sale. "Don Juan" seemed to be the favorite, partly, no doubt, because of its Spanish subject and partly because of its literary pungency—a favorite quality among Spanish-Americans as among the Spanish themselves. The poem suffered, however, like that of Dante, by not having the metrical translation, and it is hard to understand its attractions in this form. German literature was confined to the works of Schiller and Goethe and the booksellers said that not many of those were sold.

Of course the larger part of the stock on the book shelves is made up of the work of Spanish writers, classic and modern. The people read Cervantes with as much avidity as if he were satirizing the faults of others instead of their own.

Local production of literature has taken utilitarian forms in most part, although there has been some modest fiction and a little creditable verse written. Historical monographs relating to the island are numerous and political pamphlets of various sorts even exceed them in number. The historian of Puerto Rico, in the future, will find much valuable matter in the little books that have issued from obscure presses throughout the island. The public library of San Juan has a

**HISTORICAL
LIBRARY
OF SAN JUAN.**

collection which will be of value to many a student. It contains rare works on old Spanish voyages, early maps of the West Indies, showing the progress of discovery, manuscripts and documents that will gladden the heart of bookmen, and old plates and engravings of equal interest. Some of these things may have decayed from inattention, but not from careless use, for they have been studied but little. The book shops and

the private libraries, like the public library of San Juan, may be depended upon to repay research.

Among the books written and published in Puerto Rico, the text books used in the island schools are notable. Many of these—all, in fact, of the primary and intermediate grades—are local productions. One of that sort is before me as I write, “*Elementos de Cosmographia y Geographia Particular de la Isla de Puerto Rico.*” It was written by Felipe Janer y Soler, who is a bachelor of arts and an upper professor in the schools, so the title page explains. This edition, the second, was printed in San Juan in 1890, the work having been decreed a text book for the schools of the province by a governmental decree seven years earlier. The book gained a medal at the Paris exposition of 1889.

This little book of less than a hundred pages, about the size of an American primer, contains some excellent information about the island as well as some very entertaining things. Its first part is devoted to geometrical definitions, “indispensable for the study of cosmography.” Then comes the part devoted to definitions in astronomy, which gives almost as much attention to the heavens as the rest of the book does to the earth. Finally, after several pages devoted to general geographical definitions and the grand divisions of the subject, there comes an excellent little map of Puerto Rico and the portions of the work devoted to the island itself.

We are informed that Puerto Rico was discovered by “the celebrated Genoese mariner, Don Cristobal Colon, aided by their Catholic majesties,” that it was conquered by Don Juan Ponce de Leon in 1508, who in the next year founded the first town under the name of Caparra, and that the island belongs to Spain, “to whom it owes its discovery, its conquest, its wealth and its civilization.” The natural beauties of the island, and the curiosities which tourists ought to see are named, including the caves of Aguas Buenas, the great cavern of Pajita in Lares, that of Ciales, not far from the capital, “the cave of the dead” near Utuado, the cascade of Santa Olalla, near Bayamon, one called “the leap of the Cacique” near Guanica and a natural foun-

LOCAL OPINIONS
OF
PUERTO RICO.

tain near Aguadilla. The geographer declares that the climate of Puerto Rico is very salubrious, although hot, like other intertropical countries, but that Adjuntas, Aibonito, Cayey, Utuado, Lares and the other mountain towns have a cooler temperature. He credits the island with but two seasons—the dry, during which the heat is greatest and resulting sickness is most likely to occur, and the rainy season, when the great tropical storms occur at times. The hottest months are those from June to September, inclusive, and the rainy season is from August to December inclusive. The author omits to place the other months. The prevailing winds, except from November to January, are from the north, consequently bringing cool, fresh air from the north Atlantic ocean.

It is concerning the aspect of the island and the people that the geographer becomes eloquent. Of the former he says: "The aspect

of the island is the most beautiful which can be
 offered by nature; its fertile and exuberant fields,
 its beautiful sky, the multitude of rivers which flow
 through all parts, the great numbers of gay-plumaged
 birds which inhabit its wooded hills, and its climate, modified by the
 sea-breezes, give to our isle a magnificent appearance, presenting to
 us picturesque vistas and unrivaled landscapes."

"What is the character of the Puertoriquenan?" asks the writer, then proceeding to answer his own question.

"His manner is affable and expansive. His complexion usually is slightly pale, his countenance agreeable, his carriage erect and his manner dignified and graceful. The people of Puerto Rico are honest, brave and hospitable. Their constitution, like that of most inhabitants of hot countries, is rather frail and inclined to sickness, although there are many individuals, particularly those who devote themselves to manual labor, whose physique is strong, agile and robust."

The little book contains detailed accounts of the physical characteristics of the island, the mountains, lakes and rivers, the crops, the cities and all other details. It has tables of distance, descriptions of the roads and railways, and much other information which the children in the island schools need to know. Altogether it is a right encouraging sign to see as good a text book as this is produced locally

in an island which we are likely to think by no means equal to such things.

I have been impressed by the excellent work in lithography, done by certain engraving houses in San Juan. Those houses and one in Mayaguez have made a specialty of map work and their maps of Puerto Rico are by all means the best that can be obtained. The workmanship is good in every detail and the maps would do no discredit to the best map makers in the United States, in spite of the fact that their style of lettering, with some other points of difference, makes them seem peculiar. If there is merit in the old saw that printing is "the art preservative of all arts," it is an excellent thing to see the printers' craft with its kindred branches flourishing in Puerto Rico.

Places of worship and places of amusement alike in Puerto Rico have been less frequented of late than might have been expected. In Havana last year, it was not strange to find that the people did not care to go much into public, when nearly every one was mourning the loss of some friend in the insurgent army. But Puerto Rico has not suffered in the same way as Cuba and I could not overcome a surprise to find churches and theaters alike almost empty.

CHURCHES
AND THEATERS
EMPTY.

In Ponce the opera house is an excellent one, built with some attention to classic architecture, with a fine Greek portico in front and constructed of masonry throughout. Within, the audience room is arranged much after the fashion of our own theaters, except that a greater part of the space is given up to boxes and stalls. The seating arrangements are good, as are also the acoustic properties. I judge the house to seat about 1,200 persons. The balcony connects directly with the upper rooms of the leading club-house of the city, so that members have a private entrance to the theater and a promenade accessible to them for refreshments between the acts, removed from the rest of the audience. The stage is well equipped with fairly modern scenery and accessories so that no American company journeying there would suffer for accommodations.

The first time I went into the theater was in the afternoon, my errand being to secure seats for the evening entertainment. The performance was to be that of a troupe of Japanese jugglers and balancers,

with dancing and other features. Inasmuch as this was the first company of any sort to appear in the theater for nearly two years, except some amateurs of a local organization, it seemed that the house would be full and I wanted to see a genuine audience of the people of Ponce. Furthermore, the town was full of American officers who were likely to welcome the opportunity for a little diversion and would help the crowd in size. At the door I asked the price of seats for the evening. The man at the door looked a trifle puzzled at the question and I repeated it.

"Oh, you want tickets," he said. "I don't speak Spanish. Hey, Billy, come here." And when "Billy" came, it developed that the proprietors of the company were Americans, taking the first opportunity to play a date in the newly acquired territory. They knew Clark street in Chicago and their Japs had played "the Hopkins circuit" and the "Olympic" more than once. The trip was not proving a profitable one. They had been in the tropics for several months, traveling as far south as British Guiana and covering all the Windward and Leeward islands. Now, on the homeward bound journey, they were trying the island of Puerto Rico during the American occupation and had hopes of reaching Cuba before they returned home.

"Only five of these 'manana' dollars for a box that will hold six people," wailed "Billy," "and then we don't seem to be selling many tickets."

A Theater Audience in Ponce.

That night there may have been a dozen Americans in the parquet and a hundred people of the island. In the balcony the number was less. In the gallery above there was a crowd of delighted, noisy men, seeing wonders of which they had never dreamed. The tricks of the Japanese needed no translation to be intelligible, so that everything was encored to the limit, including those feats which include the releasing of the American flags from the ceiling of the theater. Nevertheless there was no money in that sort of business, and after a "run" of a few nights in the theater the company secured a big tent and began a tent-show down the road toward the Playa.

TRIALS OF AN AMERICAN TROUPE.

San Juan, the capital, has a very good opera house facing the plaza of Columbus. The night after I reached the city, the house was well filled to see a one-man performance in imitation of the work of the Italian Fregoli, with quick changes of costume and an accompanying drama. Except for this, there was no other performance while I was in the city. There was a hope, however, that a company advertising in Ponce might be induced to extend its journey to the capital. The play they were offering was advertised as "El Gran Drama Americano, La Cabana de Tio Tom," **"LA CABANA DE TIO TOM."** and as I had seen it a year before in Key West, performed by an amateur troupe of negroes, under the more familiar name of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," with a "Little Eva" who was as black as coal and whose hair was as kinky as wool, I cherished a tender memory of the play and regretted not to see it in Spanish.

Most of the foreign entertainments reaching Puerto Rico are those on their way to Havana and Mexico from Europe. They stop over one boat and usually do pretty good business in the capital. Fregoli has made that trip, and several well-known Spanish and Italian opera companies. Loie Fuller has danced there and I believe Patti once sang in this same theater.

Hotel Life in Puerto Rico.

Hotels of Puerto Rico, like olives, must be classed as an acquired taste. They are all right after one learns to like them, but until that time they are far from enticing and the process of acquiring the taste is for some people an impossible undertaking. With few exceptions they are all alike, barring minor differences of little consequence. In Ponce, the principal hotel at the time of the American occupation was the Frances, a name which one finds applied to the most pretentious hotel in most towns of the island. It is intended to indicate traditional French excellence of cooking, but, like the Hotel du Commerce of St. Thomas, the best thing about it is the name.

The landlady of the Hotel Frances, Ponce, was a bustling little Frenchwoman, with too much work for her own strength and time and a husband who was as much of a superfluity about the house as

is usual in such cases. When the business began to multiply beyond all calculations, with the influx of Americans, Madame became more distracted than ever. She kept no books, or none that were of any service in settling accounts, apparently depending on the honesty of each guest when he departed, to remember how long he had been a lodger, and to inform her of that essential fact. The cafe was crowded at meal time, until Madame was compelled to take the great salon of an adjoining house and turn it into a dining-room. For guest rooms there was no improvement she could make. The house was boxed in between the walls of the two adjoining residences and every room but two or three was an inner chamber, without window to the street. This in a tropical climate is almost intolerable and no one, however able to adapt himself to strange circumstances, could pretend to be satisfied with it. Poor ventilation, inadequate bathing facilities and extreme heat form a difficult combination to face with equanimity.

The meals served by Madame, like those in almost every hotel of the island, consisted mostly of meat. The beef of Puerto Rico is tough by nature, and, cooked in a way to intensify its toughness, it becomes by no means palatable. Pork, mutton and veal were little better and it was to chicken that we had to turn for relief. As for vegetables, they were seldom served. It seems that potatoes cannot be grown in the island and few are imported. At any rate we did not see potatoes served at meals half a dozen times in all the weeks we were in the island. In the market places we used to see fresh, green vegetables of many sorts, including tomatoes, onions, cucumbers, lettuce, radishes, beans and others strange to our sight, but they never reached the table of the hotels throughout the island. Instead, a dinner of seven or eight kinds of meat would be offered, with soup and fish, the latter usually impossible because of the high seasoning of rancid oil.

For dessert there came no sweetmeats or pudding or custards of any traditionally dainty French sort, nor even fruit except rarely, but always and regularly, twice or even three times a day, the ever-present guava paste with cheese of goats' milk. I yield to few in my relish of that dish, but even I must confess to a sense of growing monotony

in eating it twice a day, at luncheon and dinner, every day for several weeks. As is the custom in most countries other than our own, the early morning meal as offered to guests of the hotel, was not a real breakfast, but merely coffee. Now, that does not mean, as it does in other countries, coffee and rolls, or coffee and boiled eggs, or coffee and toast and bacon, but actually only a cup of black coffee or coffee and hot milk. It is true that the American visitors, after an effort, established the precedent that they could have boiled eggs and bread and even sometimes a banana, but the innovation was not approved by the people of Puerto Rico, who looked on and marveled that one could eat so heartily at such a time of day.

After these strange conditions of trade had burdened Madame for a few weeks, she began to confide in a few of her best customers that she had the intention of improving things. Then she got out a roll of architects' drawings and showed elevations, perspectives, plans and specifications for a handsome new hotel. There was a tract of land, she explained, which she had owned for some time, and on which she wished to erect a handsome, modern hotel building, after her own ideas. These were not new plans, but she had them in readiness pending the time when she could carry them into effect. It was then that we began to feel sorry for Madame. She was a nice little woman, but she could not run a hotel that would suit Americans. It was a certainty that she would put all her money into the wrong kind of a building, expecting a monopoly of the rush business that was crowding her rooms and her coffers then, and when it was all done and the hotel opened, some American who knows how to run a hotel to suit Americans would come to Ponce and take all the business with a new place of his own. Madame would do better to make hay with the old hotel while this year's sun is shining, and then stick to the sort of local trade among local travelers that had been hers before the Americans came.

**MADAME OF PONCE HAS
ASPIRATIONS.**

Another hotel opened in Ponce while I was there, to catch the trade of the American rush, naming itself Hotel Washington. There was quite enough business for it and all the others in the city, so they all made money as they had never done before.

In Guayama there were three hotels of about equal merit, the Frances and the Esmeralda in one-story buildings, and the third, the name of which escapes me, on the second floor of a business building. Until the American occupation they must have been more than adequate to the demands of local travel, but when the American occupation reached the hotels they became more than full. There, however, in Hotel Frances, we found more variety of food than in Ponce. Vegetables appeared on the table a little oftener and even one or two novelties in the way of local island dishes. Besides that, we had established the habit of catering for ourselves to some extent, for food less heat-

**FINE MELONS
IN**

PUERTO RICO.

ing in a tropical midsummer, and were patronizing the markets. Melons were ripe, though one would not discover the fact in the hotels, and they became a staple. The melons of Puerto Rico are a sort of canteloupe, larger than our American nutmeg melon, but not as large as the yellow canteloupe. They are delicate in flavor, sweet, firm, and a great treasure in the tropics, especially in Guayama and from there to San Juan, while no ice can be had.

On the road from Guayama to the capital, over the splendid military highway, one passes the towns of Cayey, Caguas and Rio Piedras, besides some smaller villages. The three named are the only ones where accommodations for travelers can be had and they are meager in quantity and quality. Not more than three or four rooms can be found at the disposal of the casual traveler in any one of those places. The comforts they provide are ample for those who are not exacting and who have worked up to them gradually, but they would seem very primitive to one coming directly from a modern hotel in the United States.

San Juan, the capital, is better provided than any other city in the island, with hotel accommodations. The Inglaterra, like the hotel of the same name in Havana, is the leading house, but there are others sufficiently comfortable. The Inglaterra occupies the

**HOTEL INGLA-
TERRA, SAN JUAN
DE PUERTO RICO.**

second and third floors of a three-story building on one of the principal streets, with its coffee-room on the street floor. On the next floor are the little office, the parlor and about two-thirds of the guest rooms. More than



GOVERNMENT OFFICES, SAN JUAN DE PUERTO RICO

This is the building in which the treasury department of the Spanish colony made its headquarters. It extends back a long distance. The plaza which it faces is lighted by electricity. The building upon the extreme left is the city hall, while the one beyond is the judiciary building.



half of these open into the square parlor, like it having no windows to the outer air. The parlor, however, is virtually a rotunda, extending to the roof with a great sky-light and ventilators above. On the third floor the dining-room occupies the east side of the house, with a beautiful outlook over ocean and harbor. A gallery encircles the parlor-rotunda at this level and the most desirable guest chambers are on this floor, extending from gallery to the outer wall, with windows and private balconies overlooking the harbor.

If one is accustomed to the Spanish style of cooking and serving food, the meals at the *Inglaterra* are excellent. The table is amply provided, vegetables and fruits forming a much larger part of the bill of fare than in any other hotel in the island. There is European style at the meals, which is not true of any other hotel in Puerto Rico. People dress for dinner, there are flowers and silver and white linen, and, altogether, no one need complain of life there unless the detail of Spanish cooking makes it impossible to him.

There is one other hotel on the island which is entitled to be named. It is the summer and winter resort of the Coamo baths, a place to which the people of Spain and South America have been coming for centuries, for the sake of their health and the baths in the splendid springs of hot and cold mineral water which flow from the earth there. The hotel is Spanish, but it is excellent, and no traveler will regret a little journey there as a part of his visit to Puerto Rico.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE AGRICULTURE AND PRODUCTS OF PUERTO RICO.

Where the Greatest Opportunities Will Be Found—An Agricultural Experiment Station in Puerto Rico—Cotton and Its Possibilities—Conditions of Rice Cultivation—Cacao and the Chocolate Bean—How Coffee Is Cultivated—Sugar and Its Profit—Corn—Cocoanuts—Oranges, Lemons and Limes—Pineapples and Their Possibilities—Pepper—Bananas the Universal Fruit—Tobacco—The Vanilla Bean—Mahogany—Poor Quality of Domestic Animals.

INDUSTRIAL Puerto Rico devotes itself almost altogether to agriculture and kindred pursuits. There are few manufactories except those supplying some immediate local want of the people. In the larger towns there are ice factories. At San Juan the Standard Oil company has a small refinery, where crude oil brought from the United States is rectified. Shoes are made by hand by native workmen and other mechanical trades are represented everywhere, but they do not reach the importance of a commercial pursuit. It is the forests and the fields of the island that will furnish to American investors and possible immigrants their opportunities for profit and the development of the tropical wealth of the island. Not only is this true, but the same pursuits offer more attractions in the manners of life they permit than most other possibilities of the island.

Agriculture as a science has not been neglected by the provincial government of Puerto Rico. A successful experimental station is maintained at Rio Piedras, the results of which have more than justified its establishment. The recent director of the station, Fernando Lopez Tuero, has been considered the best technical authority on the products of the island, and his statements are the source of much of the information which I have obtained on agricultural affairs. As a part of his work, he has issued a series of monographs on tropical agriculture

OFFICIAL INFOR-
MATION ON
AGRICULTURE.

which are of great value to any one interested in such subjects. They apply specifically to the island of Puerto Rico, but in much of their information they may be applied alike to any tropical island of similar climate and soil. The products which Mr. Tuero discusses are cotton, rice, camphor, cacao, coffee, sugar, corn, cocoanut, pineapple, pepper, bananas, tobacco, vanilla and several vegetable dye products. The list indicates the variety of possibilities in island agriculture. His estimates are as conservative as those of any authority to be found and may be accepted with considerable confidence. Practical men with whom I have talked in almost all of the different branches of island agriculture, support his calculations as fairly correct.

Concerning cotton, Mr. Tuero says that it requires land of good quality, depth and substance, which will cost about 60 pesos an acre or an annual rental of 3.33 pesos. This annual rental, or a corresponding interest on the investment if the land is purchased, is included in his estimate of the annual cost of cultivation, which he calculates to be 41 pesos an acre. From the cotton seed and the cotton he expects an annual return of 53.50 pesos, or an annual profit per acre, above the 5.5 per cent interest on the investment, of 12.50 pesos.

Conditions of rice cultivation are somewhat different in Puerto Rico from those found in other countries. There is a peculiar but excellent variety, which does not require irrigation—mountain rice it is locally named—so that all the expense of ditches and the discomfort of working in a swamp are obviated. The rains furnish sufficient water for the growing crop, and the local demand for consumption in the island always is greater than the supply. With these advantages it is estimated that the profit on rice, in addition to the interest on the investment, should be about 14.35 pesos an acre.

**RICE THAT
GROWS ON
DRY LAND.**

Cultivation of cacao, out of which the chocolate and cocoa of commerce are made, is a matter less familiar to Americans than almost any other product of Puerto Rico. The tree under favorable conditions grows to a height sometimes of forty feet, bearing small red flowers and great quantities of pods, containing each from twenty to forty almond-shaped beans, which are the object of the industry. Most of the cacao for consumption in the United States is grown in Ecuador

and Bolivia. With Puerto Rico a part of the United States and no duty to pay on what is shipped to us from there, the advantage in favor of the island will be a notable one. As it is, although the crop requires several years to come to the full measure of bearing, still it is one of the most attractive possibilities of the island. It has the additional advantage that the competition is likely to be less than in coffee and sugar, which are attracting the greater number of American investors.

A cacao plantation requires eight years to come to full bearing. At the end of the eighth year, according to the estimates of Mr. Tuero, the plantation has cost, in interest and expense, a total of 208 pesos

**EARNINGS OF
A CACAO
PLANTATION.**

an acre. In the same time there should be a return on the crop of 104 pesos an acre, most of which, however, would come during the last year of the calculation. The deficit, then, for the whole term would be 104 pesos an acre. But from that time forward, during what the authority calls the normal period, the annual expenses and interest are estimated at 49 pesos an acre and the receipts from the production at 130 pesos, or a net profit of 81 pesos.

Coffee and sugar have had the greatest amount of attention from the scientific farmers of Puerto Rico, as their most valuable crops. The estimates made on them have a large amount of accurate data behind them, based on years of experiment and practical knowledge on the part of many planters. Coffee is credited with reaching its period of full bearing in the island in six years from the establishment of the plantation. Within this time the plantation should cost in interest or rent and expense a total of 162 pesos an acre and should return from the crop, mostly in the last year, 86 pesos, or a net deficit of 76 pesos. After that, during the period of full production, the cost should be annually about 66 pesos an acre and the return 90 pesos, or an annual profit, above interest on the investment, of 24 pesos.

Before planting coffee a plentiful shade must be provided. For the first two years a temporary shade is furnished by banana trees, and after that larger trees are planted and trained to give a permanent shade. The coffee trees grow about eight feet high and send out new shoots from the ground in different directions. The stems are about the size of a small lead pencil and they are lined from end to

end with the berries, each of which contains two of the coffee grains. The berries are dark green until they approach ripening time, late in September, when they turn a bright, rich red. Between the skin and the grains is a kind of jelly, which is washed off after the skin is broken by a machine. The coffee is then dried on racks or cement floors in the open air and is ready for the market. The coffee of Puerto Rico is as good as that grown anywhere, and in the London market usually commands the highest price. The mountain coffee plantations are sources of great wealth to their owners, and even the poorest of the natives has a few coffee trees near his house.

**PREPARATION
OF COFFEE
FOR MARKET.**

Sugar is the next most important crop in Puerto Rico. Señor Tucro's estimates have been made with great care on this product and may be accepted as correct. The first investment charged in the estimates on sugar is a heavy one. It provides for the erection of buildings and the purchase of machinery for a plantation of 250 acres, to a total of 52,500 pesos. The interest on this investment, however, is charged carefully in the tables of expense. The total cost of interest, preparation of land, cultivation, preparation of crop and marketing is calculated at 152 pesos and the annual return from the crop at 170 pesos, or a total net profit of 18 pesos an acre. With the duties on sugar imported into the United States no longer charged against the crop of Puerto Rico, this profit, like that on other crops, should increase.

The discouraging conditions in the island for the last few years have affected the sugar industry more than any other. Puerto Rico has suffered with Jamaica and the Caribbees because of the legislation of the United States in regard to the sugar tariffs and bounties. To-day there are many fine plantations lying idle, with the mills and other buildings falling to decay. Much of the sugar land has been given up to cattle-raising because of the greater profit promised thereby.

**DIFFICULTIES
OF THE
SUGAR INDUSTRY.**

Corn is a crop which will be more familiar to most of the American farmers who try their fortune in Puerto Rico and it is one with no risk whatever involved. The crops are always good and there is a demand locally for most of the yield, while the surplus, if any, can

be sold to advantage in the neighboring islands of the West Indies. The cost of the crop is calculated at 33 pesos an acre, including interest on the investment, or rent of the ground, and the value of the crop at 49 pesos, or a net profit of 16 pesos an acre.

For one who can wait for his income, or who has other interests to occupy his time while waiting, the plantation of cocoanut palms offers many attractions as well as a promise of remarkable profit. The trees come to full bearing in from seven to ten years from the date of planting, and they continue to yield a full crop until they are fifty years old, without any cultivation or attention except to gather the nuts. Then they begin to diminish in their bearing capacity. The cost for interest and labor up to the time of bearing is reckoned to be 152 pesos an acre. When the crop comes, it should bring a return of about 320 pesos an acre annually, with but little expense for attention to the trees, the extermination of vermin which may attack them, and the gathering of the crop.

Citrus fruits have not been cultivated with much care in Puerto Rico and no attention has been paid to improving the varieties.

**CITRUS FRUITS
ARE NOT
THE FINEST.**

Orange and lemon trees bear in about four years. The fruit is as good as would be expected when the little care it has had is remembered, and without doubt an industry could be built up profitably. Limes, however, are much more used in Puerto Rico than lemons, answering all purposes quite as well.

A pineapple plantation in Puerto Rico comes to bearing the first year of cultivation at a total expense of 40 pesos an acre. It is claimed that the crop will bring in return 200 pesos an acre, leaving a profit of 160 pesos a year. The figures are affirmed on all sides by men who ought to know, and, if so, it should be one of the most tempting industries of the country. Under those circumstances it seems strange that the pine is not more generally raised in the island.

Pepper comes to what may be called its full bearing term in the fifth year of cultivation, but the increase still is constant and rapid until the twentieth year. Then begins a slow reduction in the annual yield, which makes it run out altogether in the fortieth year after planting. The industry is not yet general in Puerto Rico, but suffi-

cient experiments have been made to prove that it will be a valuable part of the island's production. The profit for the middle thirty years of the period of forty is calculated to be 160 pesos annually, on an annual cost of 100 pesos. Spanish colonists from Manila introduced the cultivation of pepper into Puerto Rico.

In Mr. Tuero's estimates, bananas are credited with an annual expense of 45 pesos and an annual return of 160 pesos an acre. In Puerto Rico, however, this crop is not raised commercially to any great extent. It is found all over the island, at every roadside, on every hill and in every valley. Its broad leaves shade the huts of the native peasants and its load of rich fruit feeds them. It holds about the same relation to the bill of fare in Puerto Rico that potatoes do to us. There are many varieties, varying in size, color and flavor.

Some are eaten raw, others are dried and made into flour, while others are cooked as a vegetable. Inas- **BANANAS FOR
THE
AMERICAN MARKET.** much as the climate and soil enable every one to grow bananas enough for his own use, there is no occasion for the establishment of a plantation to grow them for local consumption. For the American market, however, Puerto Rico should offer considerable profit in the cultivation of this favorite fruit.

Tobacco in Puerto Rico is a paying crop and is cultivated much as it is in the United States. The estimates on profit allow an annual cost of 79 pesos, including, as usual, interest, rent and all details of cultivation. The return is figured at 144 pesos, thus making an annual profit of 65 pesos per acre. The tobacco is hardly equal to the best Vuelta Abajo of Cuba, but improved methods of cultivation and curing ought to bring it up to the highest quality. The best plantations are in the vicinity of Coamo and Aibonito.

The vanilla bean has the most generous claims of all as to the profits to be expected from its culture. It is claimed that the cost of raising the crop would be 94 pesos an acre yearly, most of which would go for manure and irrigation and that the annual return per acre would be 652 pesos an acre.

The wealth of Puerto Rico in mahogany has been little used, that industry not appealing to Spanish planters. The result is that Haiti and Santo Domingo have had the monopoly in that line, which Puerto

Rico might have shared. The mahogany forests are usually on the mountain slopes facing the sea, from which logs could be rafted down the little streams to the railway along the north coast. The most

**MAHOGANY
BURNED FOR
FIREWOOD.**

grievous thing I learned about mahogany during my work among the islands, was that in St. Johns and the other obscurer islands of the group of which St. Thomas forms a part, the markets are so scant and the people so indifferent to the wealth at their doors, that they actually burn mahogany for firewood without the slightest compunction or realization of their act. Some one ought to go down there and teach them better, to his own profit and theirs.

In connection with the rural industries of Puerto Rico, it is necessary to say here that farmers must depend upon draft oxen and not upon horses. Of cattle-raising in the island, I have spoken in an earlier chapter. The horses are poor and small, so that there will be an opportunity to improve them by the introduction of American stock. The other domestic animals found in the island seem to be dwarfed as the horse is, and need new blood to make them large enough for usefulness. Goats, sheep, hogs and poultry are all too small and almost worthless, measured by American standards.

In all of the calculations of possible profit in agriculture in this chapter I have used pesos instead of dollars as the unit. The purpose and significance of this I shall discuss in the next chapter, in connection with the finances of the island. Until a financial system is devised for Puerto Rico as a substitute for the one now in effect it would be impossible to make estimates in dollars with any degree of accuracy. After that time, it will be a simple matter for the reader to calculate the estimates here given in terms of dollars instead of pesos.

CHAPTER XXIX.

CATTLE RAISING IN PUERTO RICO.

Successful Industry of an American Pioneer in a Spanish Colony—A Great Cattle Ranch—African Stock in the West Indies—Draft Oxen and Beef Cattle—Varieties of Pasture Grass in Puerto Rico—Some Peculiar Cattle Pests—Spanish Violence to an American Citizen—Public Land in Puerto Rico and How to Obtain It—The Land Transfer System of the Island—Life on a Cattle Ranch.

AN INDUSTRY of interest to many Americans, and one which has not been neglected in Puerto Rico, is the raising of cattle. Among the cattle ranches of the island, the largest but one is owned by a gentleman who had to leave at the outbreak of the war on account of his American citizenship. Mr. Wencislao Borda is a cosmopolitan, but he is a good American and one of the sort who develop primitive countries and leave them habitable. His experience in pioneering may be of value to others who are calculating on similar industries. His parents were residents of the United States of Colombia, both of them natives of Bogota, the capital, and of the most prominent families of that republic. They removed to London, where my friend was born. When he was nine years old, the family came to New York, and from that time they have been Americans, the father by naturalization and the children because they were minors when they came to America. Mr. Borda was educated in colleges in New York, and, after his law studies, practiced as an attorney in New York city for several years. Then he went to the United States of Colombia for a few years, and at last turned his attention to Puerto Rico, where his father had large interests in cattle and sugar.

Hacienda Esperanza, the Borda cattle ranch, is near Barceloneta,

a small station on the north-coast railway, about thirty miles west of the capital. The tract of land lies along a river, which comes down

**AN AMERICAN
CATTLE RANCH IN
PUERTO RICO.**

from the neighboring mountains, and flows into the sea at this point. It extends right down to the ocean and includes lands of all sorts, suitable for ranching as well as for crops. The pasture grasses are excellent in quality, nutritious and plentiful. The cattle from this ranch have commanded prices as high as any in the island, which is saying a good deal in a country where cattle always have been high. The stock has been carefully bred with the best strains of blood introduced into the herd. American cattle formed the nucleus of the herd, and to that start were added some choice importations from South Africa. The African bullock is a favorite here for draught purposes—the chief use of high bred cattle here. The trace of the African hump is seen in almost every animal under the yoke, something of a puzzle till the explanation is offered.

Where all the freighting is done by ox-carts and the treatment of them is severe enough to require the best stock, it is not strange that the price of bullocks for the yoke should be an essential in the calculation of profits on a cattle ranch. It means a good deal that draught-oxen are worth from 125 to 200 pesos a yoke, according to the quality of the stock, the excellence of the match and the care with which they have been broken to the yoke. Before the war too, there was a big demand for beef-cattle, the prices ranging as high as three and a quarter or three and a half pesos for the arroba, or 25 pounds. During the war, and just after, the market was low because money was scarce, there was not much work being done and the laborers were unable to buy meat.

**DRAFT-OXEN
AND
BEEF-CATTLE.**

Several well-known varieties of pasture grass grow well in Puerto Rico, Guinea grass, Para grass and gramma among others. The first does not require a rich soil, but does well in sandy soil, high on the slopes of the hills, without much regard whether or not it is a well-watered region. Cut and chopped it makes an excellent green fodder. Para grass requires better land and lower, and consequently is selected for those places where there is an alluvial soil to give richness. Such

a pasture usually occupies meadow land along the streams. Gramma requires less richness than does the Para grass and will do well in similar soil to that where the Guinea grass flourishes. Para grass makes fat rapidly, but the beef-cattle fattened on it do not weigh as much, for the same apparent size, as do those fattened on the other pasture.

Difficulties of Cattle Men.

Two pests have to be fought by the cattle-raisers here, which would be altogether strange to a farmer of the north. One is the guava and the other is a peculiar plant called by the local people "*mori vivi*." The guava, where it is welcomed, is used as a worthy fruit and furnishes the universal dessert for the dinner in Cuba and this island—guava paste with cheese. But on the cattle ranch it is anathema. Wherever the guava grows, cattle eat the fruit with avidity. They scatter the seeds all about the ranch, and the energetic guava multiplies. It is of rapid growth and almost impossible of extermination except by the closest care. Like the thistles of some northern farms, it overwhelms nature and man and takes the place for its own.

The other pest, which by a free translation may be called "it lives and it dies," is a sensitive plant in its action, but extremely hardy in its ability to survive attack. The center of the little weed is surrounded by a series of very sharp and stiff spines which lie flat on the ground when the plant is not disturbed. At the first touch, however, they rise erect and bristle with points like a porcupine on a small scale. As the cattle graze about the pasture, they come to these armored weeds, and attempt to eat the tempting bit in the center. Then the spines rise to stab the tender nose of the destroyer, and he retreats in haste. It does not take long for cattle to learn the wisdom of not poking their noses into the *mori vivi*. Then the plant multiplies unmolested until it may even overrun a pasture. It not only protects itself in this fashion, but it prevents the cattle from reaching other grasses that may be growing with it.

SOME PECULIAR
PASTURE
PESTS.

These two pests are worse enemies than the Spaniards to a plantation which has been left to care for itself for a time. Sometimes they

claim a whole pasture so completely that it must be abandoned for a season while the interlopers are exterminated. These are some of the reasons why Mr. Borda was in doubt what condition he would find when he could return to his place again in safety.

When the war broke out, or at the time when it became necessary for American citizens to leave Puerto Rico, Mr. Borda went to New York where his parents and brother live, to wait for the campaign. At the opening of the campaign he came with General Brooke in an unofficial capacity, and was of great service because of his knowledge of the language, the people and the country. As soon as it was possible to do so, he made a flying journey to Hacienda Esperanza, from whence he had just returned when I saw him first. He told me

**AN AMERICAN
CITIZEN
IN DANGER.**

that the Spaniards had killed many of his cattle for the use of the army and had done considerable damage in other ways. At one time his herds numbered about 3,500, but they are now considerably reduced from that figure. Furthermore, within the week, he had been driven out of his own plantation by threat of danger to his life, the mayor of Barceloneta finally coming to him and urging him as a friend to leave for the capital before it was too late. Other Spanish officials in the neighborhood came to arrest him, but he was able to compel a delay, and so left the place. The volunteers threatened to kill him if they got him in their power.

Inasmuch as the violence he has had and the loss he has suffered are specifically because he was known as an American citizen, Mr. Borda felt that the claim which he had filed with the state department at Washington is one that was entitled to consideration. He believed in the policy of conciliation, in order to bring the island back to peace as rapidly as possible and mollify the feelings of the pro-Spanish element as much as is proper. But he did not think that so much attention should be paid to making good Americans out of them by giving them favors and offices and deference, that there should be no favor or justice left for those who have been good Americans all the time, and have paid for it with their property.

There is some public land still remaining in Puerto Rico, in the ownership of the province, but not a great deal. Of course the best

lands are not to be found in this category, but there are some that could be made into coffee plantations. The committee on public lands has an office and a secretary in the building devoted to public offices in the capital. Its records and surveys are very incomplete and there is no way by which the land-seeker can go to this office and obtain information as to what lands are still unoccupied. But when one discovers a certain tract of land which is reputed to be in public ownership—crown lands they have been till recently—he goes to the office, ascertains the fact, “denounces” it to the secretary and pays for a survey. Then it is appraised by a committee, and the land is sold to the buyer under a system of annual payments which are by no means burdensome. Lands obtained in this way usually are cheaper than adjoining properties held in private ownership, but as I have said, there is not a large quantity to be had, and until a careful island survey is made there will be no way to tell what land could be secured thus.

**PUBLIC LAND
SALES IN
PUERTO RICO.**

The land-transfer system of Puerto Rico is quite simple and satisfactory, far more like the Australian system or the Torrens law than what is found in most of the United States. All titles run back to the old Spanish grants, given as rewards for some service to the monarch, often of enormous extent and conflicting. But a silence of twenty years invalidates any claim to land in Puerto Rico, so that there is little litigation on land titles in the courts any more. Most of the titles now need to be investigated only as to the last twenty years and that is simple enough. In ten minutes one may trace the condition of the title to any piece of land. The law requires that all incumbrances must be recorded without delay. These records for any piece of property are spread on one page usually, though some that have been transferred frequently have turned to a second page. The items never are scattered, however, and all the items are to be found in the one place. A transfer of land must be certified before a notary and then the registration, with a moderate fee, completes the record.

**SYSTEM OF TITLES
AND LAND
TRANSFER.**

CHAPTER XXX.

THE FINANCIAL SYSTEM AND CONDITIONS OF THE ISLAND.

Circulating Medium of Puerto Rico—Military Rates of Exchange for American Money—Commercial Law Stronger than Military—Floating Debt of the Island—Mortgages on Real Estate—Where the Financial Magnates of the Island Stand—The Laborers and Their Relation to the Financial System—How Spain Gave Puerto Rico a Distinct Coinage of Its Own—Bank Notes the Only Paper Currency—How the Banks of Puerto Rico Were Organized—The Course of Foreign Exchange—The Land Bank of Puerto Rico.

THE changing of the system of coinage and finance of Puerto Rico to that of the United States, as no doubt will have to be done at the very beginning of reorganization, will be by no means a simple problem. How this change is to be effected with the least harm to any one is the question which, more than any other, troubles the people of the island. Their values are expressed in silver at present, and always have been, the silver now a depreciated currency. For a circulating medium they have the special coinage made for them in the Spanish mint, of silver to the amount of 7,000,000 pesos, or whatever portion of that still remains in the island, a little fractional copper coin, and the large amount of notes issued by the Banco Espanol de Puerto Rico, which pass at par with silver.

The people understand quite well that with the intimate commercial relations rapidly forming between the island and their new mother country, they cannot be left to do business with a depreciated currency, and the change to the American standard must come soon. They understand equally well that the silver coins at present in circulation, with the portrait of Alfonso, the Spanish arms and the mark of the Madrid mint cannot be left in use, but must be withdrawn by

the United States and a substitute provided. Furthermore, they recognize that the notes of the Spanish bank will have to be called in unless some special favor is accorded them, which is not expected. They have no complaint concerning the fact that there is to be a change, but the manner of the process is of great concern to them.

**CHANGE IN
SYSTEM
IS NECESSARY.**

In the beginning, the military authorities at Ponce declared an arbitrary rate of exchange for money of two pesos for one American dollar. This ratio had no semblance of validity from any point of view. The bullion in the peso was not worth near 50 cents, measured by the market price of silver. On the other hand, the exchange value of the peso of Puerto Rico in the markets of the world, low as it had been forced by the unnatural condition of war, was far more than 50 cents, while its average value for the last few years was nearer 75 cents. But the military order was issued, and the military authorities started in to make it effective.

It was soon evident that in purchases in the shops of Ponce the order had no value at all. Merchants would not sell their goods at any such ratio. When a price was made to a customer in pesos it meant pesos, and if he tried to settle the bill with half the number of American dollars the sale was declared off, as it should have been. When a carriage driver was helpless, having given the service before payment, sometimes he had to accept American dollars at "two for one," but there always was a rankle in his mind, for he knew that the money would not buy him as much as it should.

The custom-house, which was the only place where American officials had anything to do with money, started to encourage the rate by accepting pesos or dollars interchangeably at the two-for-one rate and paid out the coins on the same terms. The result was that every man with an American dollar went to the custom-house with it and obtained two pesos until the cash box was overflowing with dollars and the coins of Puerto Rico were not to be had.

**FICTITIOUS RATIO
AT THE
CUSTOM-HOUSE.**

The banks and money-changers of Ponce knew better than to accept a fictitious ratio based on nothing. They had a fluctuating rate, based on exchange on Europe as modified by local supply and demand.

At times one could get 1.90 pesos for a dollar, but the rate usually was far below that, 1.75 being the rate at which the greater portion of the exchanges were made.

In Guayama, where there were fewer Americans and a more rigid military commander, the effort to establish this rate met with more success. If one boarded at a hotel and the bill was rendered to him in pesos, he could pay it with half the number of dollars. Even the stores there yielded to the same condition at times. Up in the country, at such towns as Cayey and Caguas and the neighboring villages, American money was not accepted at all when I was there, except by force of superior authority, which was seldom invoked. In San Juan, the capital, the rate had no influence whatever. Merchants made prices in pesos and required payment in pesos unless the dollars were offered at their actual value in the course of commercial exchange. The same was true of the hotels and other business concerns. As for the banks on which American drafts were drawn, their rates were as low as 1.65 and 1.70 for dollars, and they claimed this to be as much as they could afford to pay in their dealings with the American banks, with which they had to settle ultimately. The usual rate at the money-changers' was 1.70 or 1.75.

If the volume of money in circulation in Puerto Rico were the only thing to be considered in shifting the currency system from the depreciated silver of Spain to the gold standard of the United States, there would be much less of a puzzle about it. If it were necessary, or expedient, the United States might even afford to redeem the pesos at par in dollars and stand the loss of, perhaps, \$3,000,000 as a matter of convenience in making the change. But there is a very large floating debt in the island—probably about 50,000,000 pesos, though the estimates run from 40,000,000 to 75,000,000—and there is where the trouble lies.

Some conditions are becoming apparent that seem almost anomalous in the light of financial opinions as we know them at home. As things are in Puerto Rico, it has become the interest of all debtors to have the peso depreciate as much as possible, expressed in terms of American dollars, and the creditors, on the other hand, are trying



WOMEN OF PONCE, PUERTO RICO.



CATHEDRAL OF GUAYAMA, PUERTO RICO

This cathedral is considered second in the Island, that of San Juan being largest and most pretentious.



to raise the silver peso to a position as near par as they can. The men of money, in banking and other financial lines, are standing by silver to argue its excellence in the commercial world, and the other people are willing to see the coin rejected of men and humbled in the dust. These facts are surprising to one from the United States, no matter what his own views of finance at home may be, and they seem worth looking into.

There exist in the island mortgages on real estate—mostly plantation property—to the amount of 20,000,000 pesos and credits at least to the amount of 25,000,000 or 30,000,000 pesos in commercial business, unsecured except for personal credit. These debts were contracted within the last ten years, the mortgages forming the older part of the whole and the commercial paper the more recent. Altogether, then, they have been contracted while the rate of exchange on New York was fluctuating from 25 to 75 per cent premium. If the money current, therefore, is not changed at a reasonable rate, those who have to recover on securities will suffer considerable loss, while those who have to pay will obtain an unjust advantage.

**MORTGAGES
MUST BE
PROVIDED FOR.**

The position of the financial men of the island is very clear. The obligations which they hold have been created while silver was fluctuating, with an average premium on gold of 50 per cent. They will oppose the establishment of a fixed rate for settlements which makes silver worth any less than that, because it will be a material scaling down of their holdings. The debts are all expressed in terms "money current." If the United States fixes a rate of exchange of 100 per cent premium on American money and decrees that debts may be settled on those terms, a man with \$50 may settle a 100-peso debt. If the rate is to be 50 per cent premium it will take \$66.66 to settle the 100-peso debt, and so on. Obviously the creditor will profit by having a low premium on the American dollar, and the debtor by a high premium. Both sides recognize the situation and admit it freely.

The bankers show specifically that the rate of exchange would bear them out in their contention, but to do so they argue energetically that the silver coin of Puerto Rico should be judged not on its bullion value, but on its exchange value in the market of the world, with the credit

of the commerce of the island behind it. This, they insist, is the only true test.

Mr. W. S. Marr, the Scotch manager of the great Central de Canovanas, who gave me valuable information concerning the labor system on the sugar plantations, and the matter of sugar centrals as investments, favored me with some of his views on the currency question as it relates to Puerto Rico and to the sugar laborers and planters.

Concerning the effect on the people throughout the island he says: "The laborers of Puerto Rico do not understand ethical terms and the logic of purchasing power does not appeal to them. They may be told

that their wages under the gold standard will buy them as much as their present wages under silver, but when they see fewer pesetas for their daily earnings than they get now they are apt to make trouble.

I do not think that wages will be reduced in full proportion to the change of standards, simply because of the difficulty of reconciling the people to such a radical change. The employers should bear half the change and the laborers half. For instance, a laborer who now gets 60 centavos a day in silver should get but 40 cents a day in gold if the rate of exchange is established at 50 per cent premium on the new currency which is to be introduced. I would advocate, however, that the wage in such a case be 50 cents, really an increase in wages measured by their purchasing power. If the employers will bear that much burden of the change I think it may be put into effect without difficulty. But you must not expect to exchange the silver of Puerto Rico for the dollar of the United States at two for one. Even the weak fiat of Spain has made the peso worth far more than its bullion would justify at the market rate of silver."

Three years ago Spain gave to the island of Puerto Rico a distinctive coinage of its own and the story of the affair is another instance of the way in which the islanders suffered robbery at the hands of their mother country.

The money formerly in use in the island was the same as that used in Spain, with no distinctive marks or design. As business increased and the demand for a larger quantity of currency became imperative, Mexican dollars were bought in large numbers and brought to Puerto

Rico, where they entered the channels of trade promptly and passed at par with the Spanish peso. In some way hard to understand, they, too, drifted away, until once more the volume of circulation was altogether too small for the demands upon it. Although the course of exchange was always in favor of the island, because of its predominance of exports, yet the settlement of the annual balances seemed to help it little, and the people were prosperous in credits, but with little cash on hand. All transactions had to be made with commercial paper instead of cash, and money was held at high prices by the banks.

In response to the repeated demands on the people of Puerto Rico and the delegations sent back to Spain to formulate the demands, the Spanish government finally promised to afford relief by means of a special issue of coin for the island. In 1895 the Spanish mint coined 5,000,000 pesos in silver and the next year coined a total of 2,000,000 pesos in fractional silver, the pieces being of the denominations of 5, 10, 20 and 40 centavos. In size and nominal value the peso of 100 centavos corresponds to our silver dollar, so the fractional coins are easily understood, though there are none of 25 or 50 centavos. No change was made in the copper coinage, the pieces current in Spain, of one and two centavos, still circulating in Puerto Rico.

**SPECIAL COINAGE
FOR
PUERTO RICO.**

The next thing to be done was to get the new coinage into circulation. The Spanish government declared the Mexican dollars, which had been used in business so generally, to be not only no longer legal tender, but contraband, and forbade their use. Then it offered to redeem them in the new pesos, calling them in and estimating their value at 95 centavos. In issuing the new pesos for them at 100 the Spanish treasury thus was making 5 per cent, but it pleaded justification when complaint was made, saying that the cost of mintage and distribution of the new coins left no profit. Then it began to be discovered that there was something wrong with the coin itself, and people began to ask if it was of an equal degree of fineness with the Spanish peso. Spanish merchants at home refused to accept the peso from Puerto Rico except at a discount of 20 per cent. The Spanish government had made a large profit in addition to the admitted 5 per cent.

The only paper currency in circulation in the island of Puerto Rico is that issued by the Banco Espanol de Puerto Rico. There are no government notes of any kind, either from the provincial treasury or the treasury of Spain. The bank notes issued by the Spanish bank have been compelled to meet all the demands for a circulating medium except the silver coinage.

The Spanish bank of Puerto Rico was established by royal charter of the date of May 5, 1888, with an authorized capital of 1,500,000 pesos and the privilege of increasing that to 2,000,000 when the governor of the island should approve. It was granted the exclusive right of issue in the island, on condition that its resources should be at the disposal of the provincial government for loans up to a total of 500,000 pesos, on which the government should pay not more than 8 per cent interest. The charter of the bank provides that it may issue notes or "billetes," payable to bearer at sight, to the amount of three times its capital, and of denominations not less than 5 pesos nor more than 200 pesos. It is required that "the bank shall hold constantly in the vaults, in money current, either gold or silver or in bullion of the same metals, at least one-third of the total issue of billetes in circulation, and the other two-thirds in preferred securities of terms not to exceed 120 days."

**THE SPANISH
BANK OF
PUERTO RICO.**

No other security is behind the issue of bank notes but the credit of the bank itself. The government assumes no responsibility whatever except to make an inspection once in awhile, and the bank issues no statements for public information. I was unable to learn even the total amount of bank notes outstanding. Nevertheless the people seem to be satisfied with the security offered and the notes circulate side by side with silver without any variation in their value. It was explained to me that the bank was sound and its management satisfactory to the public, so that the notes were all right, whereas if they had been guaranteed by the Spanish government there would have been a doubt as to their value, and as soon as it became evident that Spain was to lose Puerto Rico they surely would have begun to depreciate.

Spain abolished slavery by paying the slave owners something for the property which was set free. In 1873, when slavery in Puerto Rico

came to an end, there was a sum amounting to nearly \$10,000,000 appropriated by the home government to settle the bill, and the money was distributed in various ways without letting the slave holders get any great part of it. Many years were occupied in the distribution of the fund and the closing of the deal, but the last item in it all was the establishment of the Spanish bank of Puerto Rico. Former slave holders were given one share in the bank for each slave they had held, and the money which might have gone to them in cash was thus employed in starting the bank. The details of the story are a bit complicated, forming one of the picturesque incidents in the history of finance in the island, but the essentials are as above.

**BANK FOUNDED
ON MONEY THAT
FREED THE SLAVES.**

The bank devotes itself altogether to a current commercial business, paying no attention at all to country investments or farm loans, which are left to the Agricola bank. It does a large business in commercial discounts and short-time personal credits after the fashion of city banks at home, carries a large number of deposit accounts for merchants and capitalists and makes loans on city property in San Juan. The bank rate for discounting commercial credits is 9 per cent. If anyone is surprised at the rate of discount charged by the Spanish bank, the comparison should be made with the private banks in San Juan, which charge 12 per cent for the same service or with the banks in country towns, whose rates usually are 18 per cent.

The Territorial and Agricultural bank partakes more of the nature of what we know as a loan and trust company than of a bank in ordinary commercial business. It is almost exclusively a land bank, carrying current deposit accounts, it is true, but doing no discount business at all, no foreign business and little in the way of short-time personal security loans. The terms of the charter permit the bank to buy and sell mortgages, to issue mortgage bonds payable to bearer, to make loans on growing crops and to make loans for a maximum of ninety days on personal security.

CHAPTER XXXI.

AMERICAN OPPORTUNITIES IN PUERTO RICO.

Foreign Investments in Business under the Spanish Regime—Exodus of Spanish Investors Probable—Extent of German Influence in the Island—Few Local Manufacturing—Wages of Mechanics—How Laborers Live—Rents in the Capital—Insurance in Puerto Rico—All Calculations made in Pesos—The Postal Telegraph System of Puerto Rico—The Shoe Trade of the Island—Political Conditions—The Newspapers—The Star Spangled Banner in an Island Cathedral—Schools—Volume of Trade of Puerto Rico According to the Latest Official Reports.

P UERTORIQUEÑANS themselves control a larger proportion of the property and the investments in the island, measured by value, than do the people of any foreign country, but this predominance is due to the large number of small holdings rather than the ownership of many large concerns. Most of the commercial and industrial undertakings of great extent or capital are under the control of foreign investors, if indeed they were not originally planned and established by them.

As might be expected, Spanish capital has been invested in the island to greater extent than that from any other foreign country, and after the Spanish come the investors of Germany, France, Great Britain and the United States in the order named. It is a characteristic of the first that in most instances the Spanish investor is a local resident, watching the administration of his own enterprise, which is likely to be a small one, but a profitable one if in the cities, or a large and profitable one if in the country. Many of the commercial houses in retail and wholesale trade are Spanish, the best hotels are Spanish, some of the capital invested in banks and mortgage loan companies is Spanish.

It is probable that more of this line of investments will be on the market for sale to Americans than any other. The German, the

Frenchman, and the Englishman, assured of improved and more honest forms of government, with lighter taxation under the rule of the United States, are looking for higher profits than they have had in the past. They have no sentiment involved in the matter, and will stay unless they get prices which make it imperative to sell. But the Spaniard living in Puerto Rico is not callous. He feels that a transfer of his allegiance will be a grief, and if he can sell out to fair advantage, or even at a sacrifice, he is going to do it. I found some Spanish gentlemen in business who are going to remain and become American citizens, but I found more who are going back to Spain if they can.

**SOURCE OF MOST
BUSINESS
OPPORTUNITIES.**

The cities are a small part of Puerto Rico, and it is in the hills and the valleys of the island that the Spaniard has most of his property. Furthermore, it is there that most American investors are likely to look for bonanzas, irrespective of whether or not there are such to be found. Most of the plantations which will go on the market—sugar, coffee, tobacco, cacao or whatever they may be—will be those of Spanish owners. They will be just as much cheaper than those of the German or French or English proprietor as the measurable difference between the sentiment of the Spaniard who wants to withdraw his capital from the island and go home to Spain, and the other investor who sees prosperity in the change of administration and is all the more anxious to stay.

It is not to be forgotten that one of the chief causes of irritation in Cuba and in Puerto Rico has been this same element of Spanish residents. Whether they have been carpet-bagging officeholders or mere investors, it has been quite well understood that their only intention in the island was to make all the money possible and then go back to Spain to spend it. They have not been settlers as we understand the word, with the purpose of establishing a home and a household where their property was. They have stripped the people dishonestly, or the land honestly, and then have gone to Madrid or Paris or Vienna to spend the proceeds. There will be two influences upon such plantation owners, or hacendados, to induce their departure and the placing of their places on the market. One will be their own senti-

**SPANISH RESI-
DENTS A CAUSE OF
IRRITATION.**

ment, the other their fear that the people of the local communities will some day take an opportunity to resent past years by violence to person or property.

Puertorriqueños are a primitive people, with primary ideas of the administration of justice, and little training in the art of forgiving their enemies. It may easily happen that the rights of property will some day be forgotten by a plantation village in the hills, if the plantation belonged to some Spanish officer who had been notable for the severity of his administration or the oppression of his local rule. There are grievous stories told me, well authenticated, which cannot be told in detail. It is enough to say that the hacendado, often a Spaniard, has been a local magnate, with a rule, in fact, far greater than the letter of the worst law would countenance. It has depended upon the character of the man himself whether or not his people were prosperous and contented or oppressed almost to the

**WHY PUERTO RICO
WELCOMED
THE AMERICANS.**

limit of endurance. These and many others were the things which stimulated the people of Puerto Rico to welcome the Americans as they did, in every town where Spanish authority had been withdrawn, and they are the things which will act to throw the larger part of Spanish investments on the island into the market, at lower prices than would be accepted for the corresponding holdings of any other element of the population.

In the cities, the Spaniard who keeps a retail store, whether it be of groceries or dry goods or any other staple, feels that he may be the subject of a virtual boycott as soon as there is any one else with whom to trade, not necessarily an organized movement, but simply an inclination to buy from American merchants when they come into the field.

Just now that may not be a very large opportunity for American merchants, but in time it will be one of the best for a few of the right sort. Under the present conditions, with a total population in the island of less than 900,000, and no large cities, the purchasing power of the people is small and their demands equally small. The element of population which lives after the European and American fashion is almost infinitesimal to the whole. An American grocery store or dry-goods store would be out of place to-day in all but three or four

of the cities. But as the American population begins to enter the island it will demand the same comforts and supplies with which it was familiar at home, and by contact will teach the people of Puerto Rico to want things of the same sort. Then the retail store, kept by a man who is keen enough to understand local conditions as well as those of American trade, will find business waiting for him. The few who are in that line first, and learn first, are the ones who are sure to be successful.

The American retail store opened in San Juan to-day, for instance, if properly run, would be successful. It would get all the best class of business by commanding it. Good service, the best goods, careful and attractive display of the stock, and, most important of all, the "one price" system, are things that would surely win their way. On almost every article of general local consumption, the United States can undersell the markets as they have existed. Long credits will have to go in time, both wholesale and retail, and if the local merchants cannot adapt themselves to the changing conditions they no doubt will have to go too.

**CHANGING CON-
DITIONS IN
RETAIL TRADE.**

Some of the keenest of them are recognizing all these facts already, and are saying that they would like to sell out before they are crowded out, this applying to Puertorriqueños as well as Spaniards. They admit that the American merchant is keener in trade than themselves, and they fear the result of competition with him. I have had this expression of opinion from merchants in groceries, dry goods, shoes, furniture, hardware and drugs. Some of the best stores in the island capital could be bought now to advantage, and it is undoubtedly the best city in the island.

The interests held by German, French and English or Scotch investors will not be for sale to Americans except at a distinct profit to the owners. They have anticipated the probable effects of American administration in Puerto Rico, and their prices have risen materially. Inasmuch as they have the advantage of experience in the island, the American investor is not likely to do as well with a given property in the beginning as they can do, and the price, consequently, is likely to be too high for dividends unless he looks well to the future.

There are but few manufactories in Puerto Rico, and, consequently, few skilled laborers except in the mechanical trades. Manufactories include match-factories, distilleries, breweries and soap-factories, with cigar-factories far in the lead. Saddlery wares are manufactured to a considerable extent, but the leather work does not compare with that of Mexico. Shoes are made, but they are of such poor quality that the trade will be destroyed as soon as American shoes get introduced. As in all tropical countries, the houses are furnished with light chairs and sofas made of bent wood and seated with cane of the usual sort.

**MANUFACTORIES
OF
PUERTO RICO.**

Some of these are shipped into the island "knocked down," to be put together in local shops. Some are made in places that must be included as furniture factories. Sweetmeats, dulces and chocolates are made in great quantity, the manufacture of the chocolate beginning with the bean in its raw state and continuing in the same factory through every process until the cakes are ready for shipment in the form we know it at home.

Unskilled labor in the cities, such as San Juan and Ponce, is paid at the rate of 50 to 60 centavos a day, but for special work, such as the coaling of vessels in the harbor, the rate runs even as high as one to two pesos a day. Tanners get from one peso to a peso and a half. Carpenters average 50 centavos more for their day's wages. Shoemakers get about the same wages as carpenters, while brick and stonemasons get from one and one-half to three pesos a day. Engineers are paid from 40 to 50 pesos a month.

These laborers live chiefly on rice, salt fish, jerked beef and bananas or plantains, sometimes having meat but once a day. They occupy the ground floor of the house where they live, which may be one of the better residences of the city, and for it they pay a rent ranging from 2½ to 5 pesos a month, according to the number of rooms. It seems a strange system of tenantry that all the people of means live on the second floor of the houses, while the ground floor is assigned to the poorer people. The division is by strata instead of by districts, although it is true that there are distinct divisions here as in other cities as to which are the choicer streets.

In the capital, which is the fine city of the island, the division

does not seem logical. The city is built on an island, with the big hill which forms it arching into the harbor on the south and the Atlantic ocean on the north. As one goes up the hill from the harbor front the streets are all considered desirable for three blocks, when they become less and less choice as one climbs the slope. At the summit, where one overlooks both sea and harbor, with the benefit of every breeze that blows to cool the house or drive away any impurities in the air, are found the poorest houses and the poorest people. An American would consider that the choicest location and hold it at the highest price. It is certain that the American influx will not be long in changing this condition, and the splendid residence sites looking out to sea from the crest of the hill and its northern slope will soon rise in value. Then the slums will have to move to a place where rents are cheaper.

**HOW THE CITY
OF SAN JUAN
IS BUILT.**

Most houses and business buildings in San Juan are rented on a basis of 1 per cent of the investment monthly. Residences range from 30 to 100 pesos a month, according to size, location and the other conditions which regulate house rent elsewhere. But this figure includes only the floors above the street, unless a stipulation be made to the contrary, under the system which rents the ground floor for cheap tenements. Stores bring rentals ranging from 40 to 100 pesos a month.

Few of the buildings in San Juan are insured against loss by fire. They are all of masonry, and a destructive fire would be impossible. But in Santurci, a popular suburb, where the residences are almost all of wood and of the villa style, everything is insured. The business is all controlled by German and English companies, whose signs are seen in the offices of all the private bankers and exporting firms in the city. American companies have not entered the field.

In all financial items I have used the words "peso" and "centavo" instead of "dollar" and "cent" in order to keep the distinction perfectly clear, although they represent corresponding coins. As long as they are not at par, or their relative value to one another fluctuates, it would not convey an accurate idea of conditions to name island prices in dollars. All the local transactions are in pesos, wages are paid in

pesos and the expense of a household is measured in pesos. The people know no other system.

After annexation the government of the United States will have to reckon with some puzzles in state ownership and kindred subjects which it has annexed in connection with the rest of its new possessions. Not only is there a very popular and very successful postal savings bank system in operation in the Hawaiian islands, but in Puerto Rico there is a successful and profitable postal telegraph in operation. The system has made money at a high rate of profit over its expenses. Either the United States will have to lease or sell it to some private corporation, which will make money for itself out of the deal, or the government will have to operate it and prove that it can do as well as the traditional mismanagement of Spanish officials.

In Puerto Rico the people had organized their autonomous government, which was granted by Spain too late to save Cuba for her own, and had it in fairly good working order when the war began. An election had been held in which nearly 200,000 votes were declared to be cast. By agreement between the radicals and the conservatives, the first being the people who are really Puertorriqueños and the last the Spanish residents of the island—the first cabinet was equally divided between the two parties so that there was no trouble in the organization. But the two houses of the colonial parliament in the three sittings they held did nothing but discuss the budget and never passed a law. Then war began and the civil government suspended its functions in deference to military law and the captain-general was in full sway again.

There was complaint among the radicals that the autonomy granted was by no means all that it purported to be, but they considered it a step in the right direction and had hopes for the future. For some of the flaws in it they charged Luis Munoz-Rivera, the secretary of government and president of the ministry, who was in effect the island premier. When the island was in the midst of its fight for autonomy he was delegated to go to Madrid in the interest of the effort. He has never been forgiven for some of the compromises he accepted.

**PROSPEROUS
POSTAL TELEGRAPH
SYSTEM.**

**PERSONALITY
OF PROMINENT
POLITICIANS.**

Julian E. Blanco is considered to be the ablest man in the island ministry, but he is more than seventy years old and too feeble to assume the labors of the premiership. He was made minister of finance and placed in charge of the treasury department, in order to have the benefit of his presence in the government. Mr. Blanco has been a radical all his life. When he was but twenty-two years of age he wrote a pamphlet predicting that before the end of the century Puerto Rico would be annexed to the United States, and anticipating many of the political incidents that have actually come true. Furthermore, he got into trouble with his own government at that time for writing such a pamphlet for public circulation.

The other two members of the ministry were Juan Hernandez Lopez, who had the ministry for justice and the church, and Dr. Salvador Carbonell, minister of public works and instruction. All were men of ability and eminence in island affairs, and it is likely that they will be of service to the United States in some capacity under the new regime.

The newspapers of Puerto Rico are very disappointing. They are good neither in typography or the quality of their matter. English residents of San Juan and Ponce welcome the little leaflets of cable news published daily in St. Thomas, whenever they are obtainable, as the only valid source of news. The papers of Puerto Rico have high-sounding names, but they are little folio sheets with pages about ten by twelve inches, printed in large type, and devoted in most part to one long editorial and a few personals. The advertisements include a few offering land and houses for rent or sale and many offering patent medicines, some of the latter the same as those most familiar upon billboards at home.

The traveler in Puerto Rico will find much to interest him in the places of worship throughout the island. The old church of Ponce stands in the main plaza, backed by the gorgeous oriental structure which does duty for a fire department building. The church is one of the old ones of the island, exceedingly picturesque without, but does not contain much ornamentation or many relics of particular value. In the smaller villages of the island sometimes one finds more attractive

**CATHEDRALS
AND CHURCHES
OF THE ISLAND.**

churches than this. At Guayama the music was excellent and services were always well attended. The padre there was a fine old Spanish gentleman, who loved his people and his church and was proud of the fact that except for the cathedral in San Juan he had the best church in the island. He took us about the old building from top to bottom, showing every chapel and every shrine with genuine pleasure.

Then, on Sunday morning at high mass, came a peculiar thing. At the end of the service, for a recessional, the organist far up in the loft touched his keys, and through this old Catholic church in an obscure village in Puerto Rico there sounded "The Star-Spangled Banner." The variations improvised were beautiful. The melody itself was kept a little in the background, obscured a bit by the florid music that accompanied it, but it was there beyond a doubt. Perhaps the Spanish worshipers did not recognize the unfamiliar strains for what they were. But the Americans did. All over the church there were American soldiers and officers who had been present as worshipers or spectators. When the identity of the music came to them, there were heads uplifted and brightening eyes and glances of recognition that meant a great deal.

I hunted up the old padre and asked him about it.

"Yes," he said, "it was intentional. I asked the organist in the morning if he knew the American national hymn. He said that he did, so I asked him to play it as a recessional. I thought it would please the Americans."

The cathedral of San Juan is a rambling old building, far from artistic in its architecture, but picturesque from without and with many interesting things within. Its organ is a fine one. Various relics are shown with pride and reverence. One of them is the body of a Roman soldier, miraculously preserved without human agency and without change for several hundred years. A treasured image of the

**THE PICTURESQUE
CATHEDRAL
OF SAN JUAN.**

Virgin Mary is attired in a dress of golden cloth said to be of enormous value. Some of the chapels and shrines are of considerable artistic merit and some good antique paintings are shown. The offerings of "ex votos" are by no means as numerous or peculiar as in similar churches in Mexico. Like them, there are but few benches or seats of

any sort, and those of the congregation who wish to be seated make it a practice to bring chairs or camp-stools of some sort with them. The high mass which I attended at the cathedral was celebrated with much reverential ceremony and the congregation entered into the service with apparent zeal. But the numbers were few and those mostly women and girls.

Schools have had rather more attention in the island than one might expect, and the people who care for such things are proud of the fact. Nevertheless they recognize that many things have to be improved, a compulsory education law being one of the first essentials. For the administration of the schools the island is divided into two wards, called north and south respectively. Altogether there are 551 schools, of which 510 are public and the remainder private institutions. Of these, 403 are for boys and 148 for girls. Altogether there are in attendance pupils to the number of 27,938, of whom 19,074 are boys and 8,864 are girls. The neglect to take advantage of what schools there are, is shown by the fact that, according to the last census, there are 65,365 boys of school age in the island and 60,330 girls. In 1897 the island spent on its schools a total of 332,367 pesos.

**DETAILS OF
THE LOCAL
SCHOOL SYSTEM.**

In the island cabinet, under the autonomous government which was granted by Spain too late to save the colony, there is a minister of education and public works under whose special care the schools are intended to be. The organization is not a complicated one, for, though strange terms are used in the nomenclature, they are arranged in grades quite similar to our own. There are, first, the primary schools, for children less than five years of age. Next come the auxiliary schools, and then the elemental, or grammar, grades. The high school is called the superior school. These divisions are pretty well maintained in the cities, but in the country the "rurales" are schools which contain all the grades in one, just as our little white schoolhouse does at home in the north.

It is an index of many other conditions of the island to know that in the schools there is no association of the sexes, girls and boys being taught in different places altogether. Not only are there no mixed schools, but boys are always taught by men and girls by women teach-

ers. The only exception to this is that children under five years go to mixed schools, and the teachers of those schools are women. Children of the poor, who are unable to pay the cost of tuition and school books, are not charged for either of these. But they are required to bring to the school a certificate from the mayor of the town, stating the condition as to their means. The school law provides frankly for the two classes under the words "rich" and "poor." I find that 4,868 of the children in school are classified as "los pobres," and, consequently, do not have to pay for books or tuition. All others pay tuition for their education instead of school taxes, this being the way in which the system is supported.

After the young folks finish the work of the superior schools, which do not carry them as high as do our high schools by at least two years' work, there remains for them in Puerto Rico but one thing higher—the institute. The government supports a collegiate institute in the capital, which, from all I can learn, seems to be a very good school. It gives to its graduates the degree of B. A., but that degree does not mean as much education as it is presumed to mean in an

**SEPARATION
OF SEXES
IN THE SCHOOLS.**

American college. It would be, perhaps, a fair comparison to say that it indicates studies about on a level with those of the sophomore year in a college at home. The entering class each year usually numbers about 100 students, and the graduating class, after four years' study, usually turns out from fifteen to twenty with the degree. But three young women ever have graduated from the institute, though the course is open to men and women alike, on equal terms. The three who graduated were much admired for their persistency, for, as my informant put it, "Girls do not care much about such things in this island."

**EDUCATION
OF THE
YOUNG WOMEN.**

The course of study requires that the student shall take one modern language—French, German or English, as he may elect. Most of the graduates whom I met had chosen French, and now are regretting the fact that they did not learn English. Among the branches taught are Latin and Greek, chemistry, geology, botany, physics, algebra, geometry and history. The sciences are taught in rather ele-

mental fashion, however, as the institute is not very well provided with laboratory facilities. A tuition fee of two and one-half pesos a year for each branch studied is charged in the institute.

The usual age of students at graduation is 18 or 19 years. If they desire education beyond that point, they must go abroad for it, as Puerto Rico offers nothing more. Spanish universities receive most of those who seek to be physicians or lawyers. Medical degrees from colleges in the United States have not been recognized in the island and did not give the right to practice, which of course barred them out. The legal education one would get in an American university would be of little service in practice in Puerto Rico as the courts have been organized. Students in dentistry go always to the United States, and in San Juan the American dentist is at the top as truly as he is in London or Australia. I found two young men who had graduated in dental schools in the north, both of them thoroughly competent, and employing the most modern methods. Students of engineering and kindred professions almost all go to the United States for their education and rank high when they return. There has been no false notion here about the excellence of American schools. My friend did the young women of the island some injustice as to their desire for education. Many of them have gone to the United States to attend school, and the advantage they have had is recognized frankly among their friends.

TECHNICAL STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

The church schools have been included in the foregoing statistics, in which they do not form as large a part as the general impression has it. Roman Catholic sisters teach some of the girls' schools and that is about all. But there is a priests' college for the instruction of candidates for the priesthood. I am told that it has been a frequent practice for young men to enter this institution for the purpose of becoming priests, remain long enough to get their education, and then leave without entering the ministry. The church does not dominate the schools here as fully as it does in Cuba.

In the other cities of the island they are not so well provided, but in the capital city there is an excellent public library of several thousand volumes, well selected and well arranged, with good reading room and facilities for consulting the books. It has little recent literature

except Spanish and French. But the historical collections are very good in all languages, and no doubt the savant who might burrow there sufficiently would find in the obscurest shelves some treasure of early Spanish printing or one of the first editions of famous maps and voyages into the Spanish main, if indeed there were not Caxtons. It is worth the search of some one who has time and patience. The book shops of the island, too, would repay a scrutiny. They are numerous and well kept, with excellent stocks of current literature in Spanish, French and German.

**TREASURES OF
THE OLD
BOOK STORES.**

Commerce of Puerto Rico.

The *Estadística General del Comercio Exterior, Puerto Rico, 1897*, gives the following figures (the latest published) in regard to the trade of the island in 1895:

IMPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles—	Value.*	Articles—	Value.*
Coal	\$119,403	Flour	\$982,222
Iron	224,206	Vegetables	192,918
Soap	238,525	Olive oil	327,801
Meat and lard	1,223,104	Wine	305,656
Jerked beef	133,616	Cheese	324,137
Fish	1,591,418	Other provisions	171,322
Rice	2,180,004	Tobacco (manufactured)	663,464

EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles—	Value.*	Articles—	Value.*
Coffee	\$8,789,788	Sugar	\$3,747,891
Tobacco	646,556	Honey	517,746

The value of the total imports was \$16,155,056, against \$18,316,971 for the preceding year. The exports were valued at \$14,629,494, against \$16,015,665 in 1894. The principal increases in imports, as compared with the preceding year, were in meats, fish, olive oil, and tobacco. Decreases were noted in flour, vegetables, and wine. The exportation of coffee diminished, and that of sugar and honey increased.

* United States currency.

The trade of the United States with Puerto Rico during the last seven years, as given by United States Treasury figures, was:

Description.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Imports:							
Free	\$1,856,955	\$3,236,337	\$3,994,673	\$3,126,895	\$375,864	\$48,608	\$101,711
Dutiable ..	1,307,155	11,670	13,950	8,739	1,131,148	2,248,045	2,079,313
Total	3,164,110	3,248,007	4,008,623	3,135,634	1,506,512	2,296,653	2,181,024
Exports:							
Domestic ..	2,112,334	2,808,631	2,502,788	2,705,646	1,820,203	2,080,400	1,964,850
Foreign ..	42,900	47,372	7,819	14,862	13,341	21,694	24,038
Total ...	2,155,234	2,856,003	2,510,607	2,720,508	1,833,544	2,102,094	1,988,888

The commerce of Spain with Puerto Rico from 1891 to 1896 was:

Description.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
Imports from Puerto Rico....	\$3,260,650	\$4,428,891	\$4,108,654	\$4,164,964	\$5,824,694	\$5,423,760
Exports to Puerto Rico.....	3,305,243	3,929,186	4,653,023	5,535,027	8,572,549	7,328,880

The trade of Puerto Rico with other countries of importance in 1895 (according to the Estadística General del Comercio Exterior) was:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.
Cuba	\$ 808,283	\$3,610,936
England	1,765,574	1,144,555
France	251,984	1,376,087
Germany	1,368,595	1,181,396
Italy	19,619	589,045
Holland	325,301	3,246
Denmark	26,565	236,418
British West Indies.....	1,709,117	521,649
Danish West Indies	600	40,434
French West Indies	55	62,927

The principal exports in 1896 were:

Articles.	Quantity.	Articles.	Quantity.
Sugar	tons.. 54,205	Timber	tons.. 30
Coffee	do... 26,655	Molasses	do... 14,740
Hides	do... 169	Tobacco	do... 1,039
Cattle	head.. 3,178		

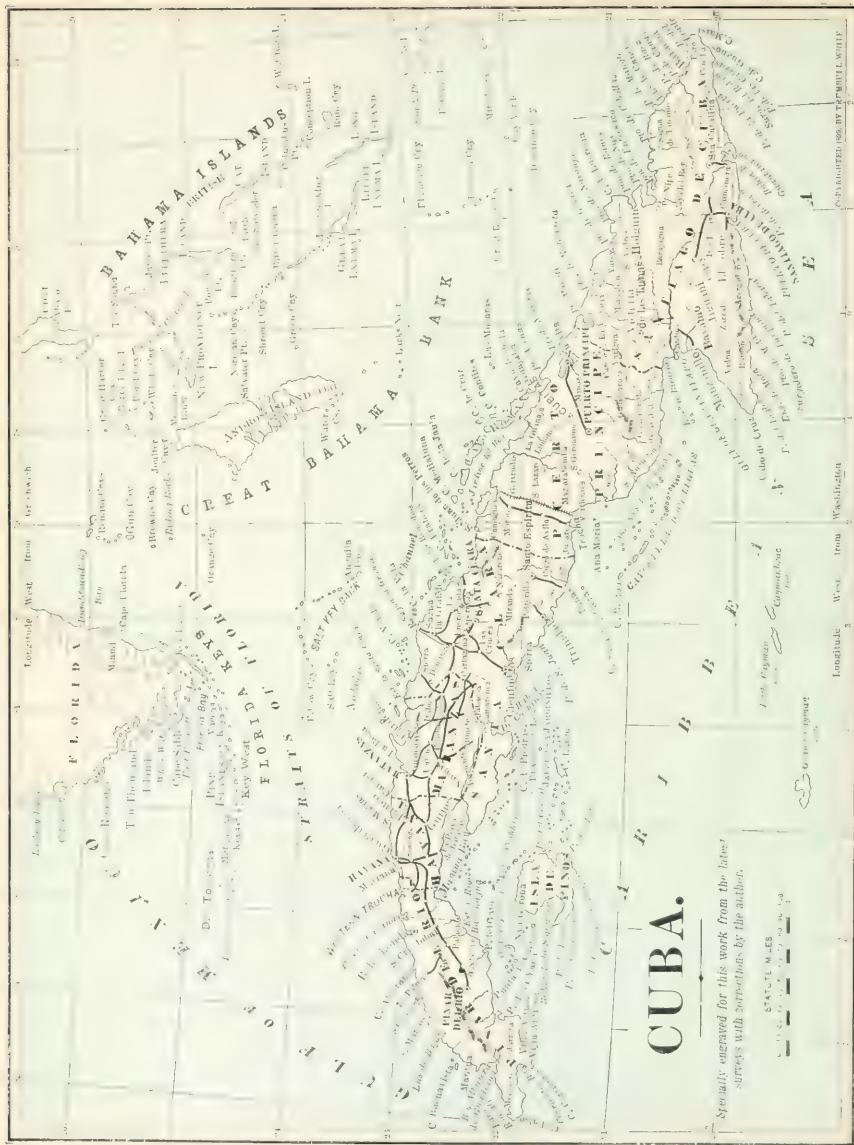


Book III.

Cuba.







CUBA.

Specially engraved for this work from the latest surveys with corrections by the author.

STATUTE MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50



One degree square

1 inch = 69 miles
1 degree = 69 miles

Longitude West from Washington

Latitude

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“THE PEARL OF THE ANTILLES.”

THE greatest island and the greatest city of all the West Indies, discovered by Columbus on his first voyage, are now for the first time looking toward intimate commercial and social relations with the United States of America. It is 380 years since the city of Havana was founded to begin its history of commercial importance. With more than 200,000 population and enormous mercantile interests, the city has been considered the capital of all Spain's West Indian colonial possessions and of consequence to the peninsular kingdom no less for its strategic and defensive value than for its commerce. It was through centuries of Spanish misrule, warfare and oppression, that the island and the capital of Cuba reached their proud station. The “Spanish main” was the scene of strife for hundreds of years after the first voyage of Columbus, between those nations jealous of the riches which were to be won from the natives who peopled the islands and the coasts of the Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico. Now, after insurrection, there has come peace, with a promise of prosperity to rest upon the island of Cuba, the fruits of which shall go to those who earn them instead of those who prey upon them.

**IMPORTANCE
OF HAVANA
TO SPAIN.**

The island of Cuba is our next-door neighbor to the south, just within the north torrid zone, and within a few hours' run of the ports of Florida. In latitude, climate, physical characteristics and resources it has many things in kindred with the other islands of our new possessions, the Philippines, Puerto Rico and Hawaii. The meridian of Washington crosses the island at its widest part, about 250 miles east of Havana and 200 miles west of Cape Maisi, the most eastern point

of Cuba. Havana is a trifle north of Honolulu and on almost exactly the same parallel of latitude as Hong Kong and Calcutta.

Geographically, the island of Cuba is contained between meridians 74 and 85 west of Greenwich, the whole length of the island, from Cape Maysi to Cape San Antonio, being about 760 miles. In latitude it extends from a trifle south of 20 to a trifle north of 23 degrees north of the equator. The narrowest part of the island, which is in the vicinity of Havana, measures but thirty miles, while at the widest part, measured north and south through the city of Manzanillo, its breadth is 125 miles. The island is nearly as long, therefore, as an air line from New York City to Chicago.

The geographical location of the cities of Havana and Santiago de Cuba makes them of great service in dominating commerce in southern waters. Vessels from the Atlantic ports of the United States and all European countries trading with Mexico and the cities of the Gulf of Mexico, pass the very door of Havana. Santiago is equally serviceable as a port on the southern side of the island for vessels sailing from our Atlantic ports to Central America, Panama, and the north coast of South America. With Cuba under our commercial influence and Puerto Rico in our possession, we shall be able to dominate the commerce of the Caribbean and the Gulf. The completion of the Nicaragua canal will be the final stroke to guarantee our prominence in those waters.

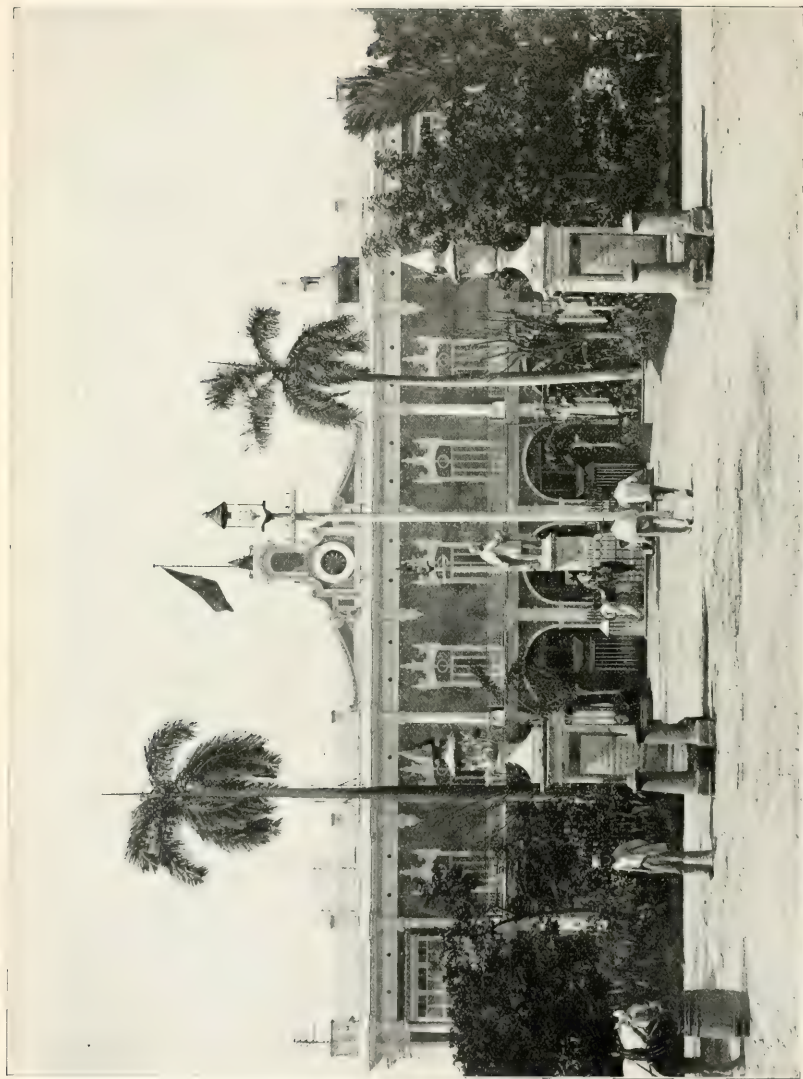
From Havana to Key West, the nearest port of the United States, the distance is but ninety miles, and to Port Tampa on the mainland of Florida, less than 300 miles. From Havana the distance to New Orleans is 600 miles, to Galveston 800, to Vera Cruz 800, to New York 1,300, and to San Juan de Puerto Rico about 1,000 miles. From Santiago to Port Antonio, in the British island of Jamaica, it is but 100 miles, and to the Mole St. Nicholas in the republic of Haiti but a little more than that distance. From Santiago to Greytown, the entrance to the Nicaragua canal, it is but 700 miles and about the same distance to Colon, the initial point of the Panama railway.

It is impossible to know at this writing what will be the ultimate solution of the political relationships between the United States of



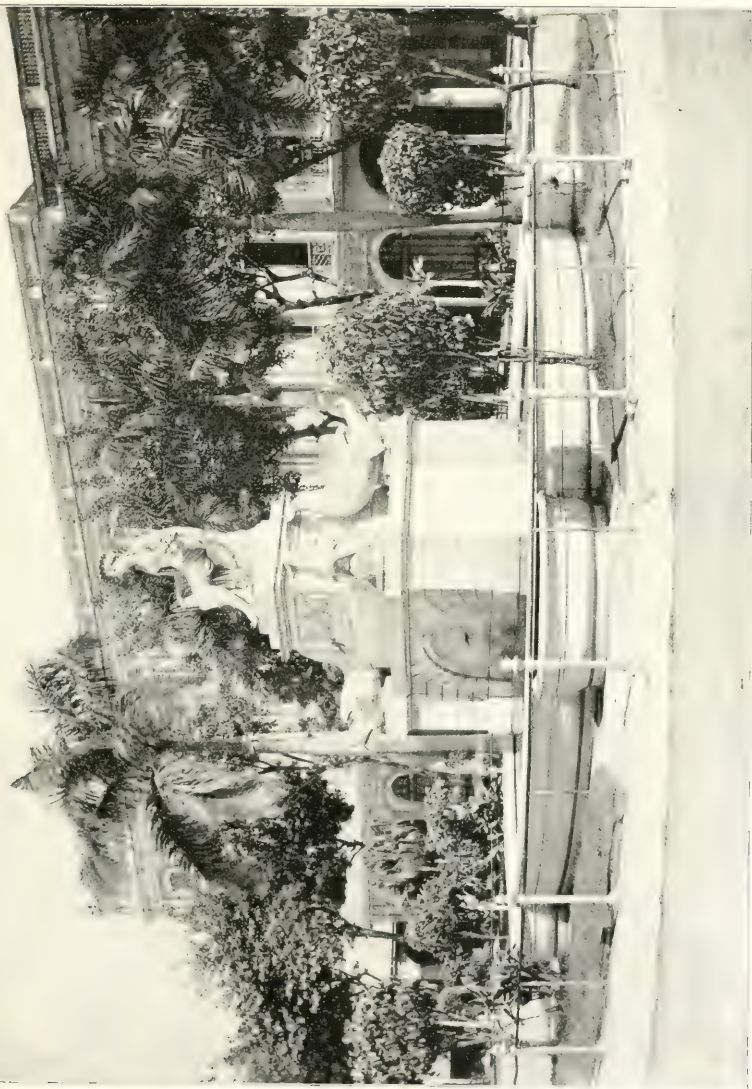
TOMB OF COLUMBUS IN THE CATHEDRAL OF HAVANA

The burial place of Christopher Columbus has been disputed for many years, between the city of Santo Domingo and Havana. Each claimant has many supporters. One of the last acts of Spanish authority in Cuba was to remove the bones which purported to be those of the great discoverer from their sepulchre and convey them to Spain for re-interment on Spanish soil.



PALACE OF THE CAPTAIN-GENERAL, HAVANA

The same building has been the official residence of the captains-general of Cuba for many years. The Weyler régime brought its own termination and the termination of Spanish power in the West Indies, while Captain-General Blanco was the last Spanish official to occupy it.



THE INDIAN STATUE IN THE PRADO, HAVANA, CUBA

Whatever else the Spanish have failed to do in Havana, they have not omitted to decorate the city in the public squares and streets with many excellent statues. This one stands in the Prado. One of the finest club houses of Havana stands in the background.



BANANAS IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS OF HAVANA

Within a few years the increase of the industry of shipping bananas into the United States has been enormous. Most of the bananas which appear in our market have come from Honduras or Jamaica. The climate of Cuba, however, is just as favorable to this product, and already arrangements are being made by the Boston Fruit Company of Jamaica to market the Cuban product in the United States.

America and the island of Cuba. The primary fact is that Cuba will no longer be under the dominance of the obsolete power of Spain. After three years of insurrection and a summer's campaign by American forces, the island has been freed. Now it must work out its own problems of government, with the friendly aid and admonition of the United States to assist. It is manifest destiny that the commerce and the progress of the island shall follow American channels and adopt American forms. Sentiment and proximity alike point to that conclusion. How intimate the political affiliation may be, it is too soon to know. Already American capital and energy are flowing into the island to develop its remarkable latent wealth and resources. Within the next few years it should have a measure of progress scarcely conceivable at this time. There are opportunities for many Americans, waiting to be utilized in the "Pearl of the Antilles."

**AMERICAN
DOMINANCE
IN CUBA.**

There is no phase of information about the island of Cuba that fails of interest. Its history from the very days of discovery is full of romance. The description of its resources and its physical conditions, phrased in the simplest terms, is a surprising array of entertaining and picturesque facts. If one looks to the future, romance and interest multiply and the subject becomes one for the most exuberant prophecies. It is of this island that the following chapters are to treat.

CHAPTER XXXII.

A GLANCE AT CUBAN HISTORY.

Bones of Columbus Removed from Havana to Spain—Injustice to the Explorer—How Spain Gained and Lost a Magnificent Colonial Empire—Aborigines of Cuba a Tractable People—Columbus Enchanted with the Beauties of the Island—Progress of Settlement in Cuba—Founding of Havana—A Letter from the Great Discoverer.

ONE of the last official acts of Spain, in abandoning her rule in Cuba, was to remove from the resting-place in Havana cathedral, where they had lain for many years, the bones which purported to be those of Christopher Columbus, the famous discoverer of the island which was their proudest colonial possession. It is impossible to ignore the sentimental side of the loss of Cuba to the Spanish. They yielded to the strength of the very American nation, which was born as a result of the pioneer voyages of that explorer, who began his discoveries under Spanish auspices. Cuba and Columbus are names inseparably connected. This largest and most fruitful island of the Spanish main was discovered by the great navigator himself, on the 28th day of October, 1492, only a short time after his first landing upon the soil of the western hemisphere on the island of San Salvador. There is a sentimental association to Americans in the thought that the discovery of our own continent was due to the expeditions

sent from Spain. But any regret in one's mind that animosities have arisen between the two nations, may be mollified by the memory that Columbus himself was an Italian, that it had required years of his efforts to induce sufficient interest on the part of Spanish monarchs to father his undertaking, and that his life in the service of Spain was marred by the basest ingratitude on the part of those whom he had served.

**SPANISH
INGRATITUDE
TO COLUMBUS.**

Upon the handsome monument erected to the memory of Columbus in Seville by Ferdinand and Isabella, is the simple inscription, "A Castile y Leon, nuevo mundo dio Colon"—"to Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a new world."

This was the tardy recognition granted to the discoverer by those to whom he had made the marvelous gift. Recognition had been denied him in his life, except after years of persistent urging, second only to those years he wasted in his effort to arouse Spanish interest and enterprise. Once he was removed from his West Indian governorship and returned to Spain in chains. The titles and honors which had been promised him before, were denied after he had earned them. He was a victim of foul ingratitude, and no American need permit sentiment to blind him for the sake of Columbus.

The splendid new world which Columbus gave to Spain, was the most marvelous addition of territory that has ever come into the possession of any nation upon earth. It included the whole of South America, except Brazil, which was acquired by Portugal, and the small colonies known as British, Dutch and French Guiana. It included the whole of Central America and Mexico. It included the whole of what is now the United States west of the Mississippi river. It included the whole of the coast of the Gulf of Mexico and the peninsula of Florida to the southern limit of Alabama and Georgia, and except for a few scattered islands, it included every foot of land in the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean sea, all the coral rocks, as well as the greater islands of the West Indies and the Antilles. To-day not a foot of all that enormous possession remains to Spain. These hundreds of thousands of square miles are inhabited by a free and peaceful people, most of them as republics, and the few exceptions under civilized and liberal colonial policies. Spain could not preserve the gifts of Columbus.

WHAT SPAIN
GAINED AND
NOW HAS LOST.

The logic of events and the progress of civilization have commanded that Spain should withdraw from her possessions in the western hemisphere. Never has there been such a record of ferocity and barbarity in conquest as that which blackens the pages of Spanish history in connection with Spain's acquisition and subjection of her newly discovered territories. Whether it was the peaceful Indians of

the Antilles, the highly civilized Aztecs of Mexico, or the Incas of Peru, the policy pursued was always the same. First, treacherous friendship, then robbery and massacre, then slavery, and finally extermination, was the unvarying programme. And so, instead of winning favor and loyalty with their consequent happiness and prosperity from the native tribes, Spanish conquerors implanted in the possessors of the country an overmastering and ineradicable hatred, which grew with association, until in colony after colony the bonds were burst by violence.

When Great Britain lost her American colonies by reason of her misgovernment and oppression of them, it was a lesson which her people never forgot. From that day, the colonial policy of the British government was altered, and the spirit of liberality and generosity began to dominate. To-day, every colony of Great Britain that enjoys representative government—Canada, Australia, Cape Colony and many others, owes to the United States the liberty which Great Britain grants.

But Spain could learn no such lessons. Her cruelty and misgovernment aroused colony after colony to rebellion ending in freedom, but her policies remained unaltered. One by one possessions of fabulous wealth dropped away until at last this old crone of nations has been left to shiver alone by her fireside, abandoned in her misery by all the children whose memory of her is nothing but that of vicious cruelty. The only pity to which Spain is entitled, is the pity that is due for her ignorance and her mistakes, not pity for the penalties that these have brought upon her.

Spain was once the intellectual leader of the world, as well as the pioneer of discovery. Spanish universities were centers of learning long before northern Europe had its intellectual birth. Spanish mariners sailed every sea and Spanish adventurers explored every land. If learning and advancement bring obligations, as they are admitted to do, it was Spain's obligation to be a leader in strife for liberty of mind and body, but the two most notable things in her history are the Spanish inquisition against freedom of thought, and the Spanish ferocities which enslaved a new world for many a year. Now she has reaped the harvest of her own misdeeds.

WHEN SPAIN
WAS
A GREAT NATION.

Every one knows that Columbus was not looking for a western hemisphere, but for the Orient, and that when he found Cuba he believed he had reached the East Indies and the islands of gold and spice which had been reported from that mysterious land. His first island discoveries he believed to be the outlying portions of that eastern archipelago and when the natives told him of a greater land near by, which he reached a few days later, he believed that at last he had reached Cipango, as Japan then was called.

The first name given to the island was Juana, in honor of Prince Juan, the son of Ferdinand and Isabella of Aragon and Castile. After Ferdinand's death, in his honor the name was changed to Fernandina. Still later it received the name of Santiago, as a mark of reverence for the patron saint of Spain, and another change was made a few years afterward, when the inhabitants, as a proof of their piety, called it Ave Maria, in honor of the Holy Virgin. In spite of all this effort at establishing a Spanish name, the original Indian name of Cuba, which it bore when the great navigator first landed on its shores, has asserted itself triumphantly through all the centuries and is now ineradicable.

Aboriginal Inhabitants of Cuba.

According to the accounts given by Spanish writers who were contemporary with the discovery, and the century immediately following, the aboriginal inhabitants of Cuba were a generous, gentle, hospitable people, by no means energetic, but heartily cordial and courteous to the strangers who reached their shores. The mildness of their climate did not stimulate them to much activity in cultivation of the soil, because tropical fruits and vegetables came with scarcely an effort on the part of the natives. Their implements and utensils were crude and their life simple.

The system of government was by no means complicated. The island was divided into nine independent principalities, each under a Cacique, all living in harmony, and warfare being almost unknown. Their religion was a peaceful one, without human sacrifices or cannibalism, but the priests had great power through their pretense of influence with spirits good and evil.

Of all the people discovered by the Spanish in their colonization

of the western hemisphere, the Cubans were the most tractable to the influences of Christianity so far as their willingness to accept the doctrines was concerned. Christianity, as practiced by the Spanish conquerors, was scarcely that of the highest type of the faith, and the inducements to accept it were somewhat violent. Nevertheless it must be noted that it is from Spanish sources this testimony as to the docility of the Cuban natives comes. Under these circumstances it becomes a magnified crime that the Spanish conquerors absolutely exterminated the hundreds of thousands of native Cubans whom they found at the time of the discovery, and that within little more than a century there was absolutely not a trace of native stock to be found anywhere in the island.

When Columbus first rested his eyes on the island of Cuba it seemed to him an enchanted land. He was charmed with its lofty mountains, its beautiful rivers, and its blossoming groves, and in his account of the voyage he said: "Everything is green as April in Andalusia. The singing of the birds is such that it seems as if one would never desire to depart. There are flocks of parrots that obscure the sun. There are trees of a thousand species, each having its particular fruit, and all of marvelous flavor."

Columbus was first of the opinion that he had found an island, but after following the shores for many miles he concluded that it was a continent. He retained the latter belief until his death, for it was not until 1508 that the island was circumnavigated, when it was discovered that it was of about the same area as England. In a subsequent expedition he reached the coast of South America, but he had no appreciation of the magnitude of that continent, and to him Cuba was the grandest of his discoveries in the New World.

Cuba was twice visited by Columbus after its discovery, in April, 1494, and again in 1502, and these visits but confirmed his first opinion regarding the salubrity of the climate and the wealth of the soil. His sailors wrested from the natives large sums of gold and silver, and this led to the mistaken belief that mines of great richness were within their grasp.

Biography furnishes no parallel to the life of Columbus. Great

men there have been who have met with injustice and disappointments, but there is perhaps no other instance of a man whom disappointments and injustice did not dishearten and disgust, who had his greatness recognized in his lifetime, and yet was robbed of the rewards that it entitled him to.

It is probable that before his death Columbus confided his belief in the wealth to be found in Cuba to his son Diego Columbus, for in 1511 the latter fitted out an expedition for the purpose of colonizing the island. This company consisted of about 300 men, under Diego Velasquez, who had accompanied the great explorer on his second voyage. The first settlement was made at Baracoa, in the extreme eastern section, and this village was regarded as the capital of the colony for several years. In the meantime extensive settlements had been made by the Spaniards in the island of Jamaica, and in 1514 the towns of Santiago and Trinidad were founded on the southern coast of Cuba, in order that the inhabitants of the two colonies might be brought into closer communication. As immigration increased, other towns of importance sprang up, and the island became the base for the various operations against Mexico. Baracoa grew largely in population, and the towns of Puerto Principe and Saneti Espiritus were established in the central section, and San Juan de los Remedios on the north coast. In July, 1515, the city of San Cristobal de la Habana was planted, deriving its name from the great discoverer, but this name was transferred in 1519 to the present capital, and the original town was called Batabano.

**GROWTH OF
SETTLEMENTS
IN CUBA.**

In 1518 the capital was fixed at Baracoa, which had by this time become a city of considerable importance and the diocese of the colony. In 1522 both the seat of government and the bishopric were removed to Santiago de Cuba. In 1538 Havana was reduced to ashes by a French privateer, and to prevent a similar disaster in future, the Castillo de la Fuerza, a fortress which still exists, was built by Fernando de Soto, governor of Cuba, and afterwards famous for his explorations in the southern and western portions of North America, as well as for the discovery of the Mississippi.

Using a modern expression, this great fortress, added to her almost

perfect harbor, gave Havana a wonderful "boom," and the city experienced a remarkable growth. The Spanish merchantmen were actively employed in carrying the wealth of Mexico to the Peninsula, and Havana was a convenient port for them to secure supplies of provisions and water. In 1549 Gonzales Perez de Angulo was appointed governor of the island, and he was so impressed with the beauties of the city, that he chose it as his residence. Several of his successors followed his example, and in 1589 it was legally made the capital of Cuba.

The early records of the island were kept in so imperfect a manner that it is not possible to give an accurate account of the early governors and their lieutenants. It is certain, however, that the seat of government was at Santiago de Cuba, and that Havana and other towns of minor importance were ruled by lieutenants. In 1538 Hernando

**FAMOUS NAMES
IN**

CUBAN HISTORY.

de Soto, adelantado of Florida, and also governor of Cuba, landed at Santiago, and remained a few days before proceeding to the mainland. On his departure he left the government of the island in charge of a lady, Dona Isabel de Bobadilla, and gave her for a colleague Don Juan de Rojas, who had at one time been lieutenant governor of Havana. It is from this date that the gradual transference of the seat of power from Santiago to Havana may be said to have arisen.

Don Antonio de Chavez assumed the government in 1547, and he it was who gave Havana its first regular supply of water, bringing it a distance of about six miles from the river Chorrera.

The early settlers devoted themselves principally to the raising of cattle, paying very little attention to agricultural pursuits, or in fact to any means of livelihood that called for manual labor. Much time and money were wasted in explorations for gold and silver, but these were invariably unsuccessful, for while the precious metals have occasionally been found in the island, the quantity has never been sufficient to repay the labor of the search.

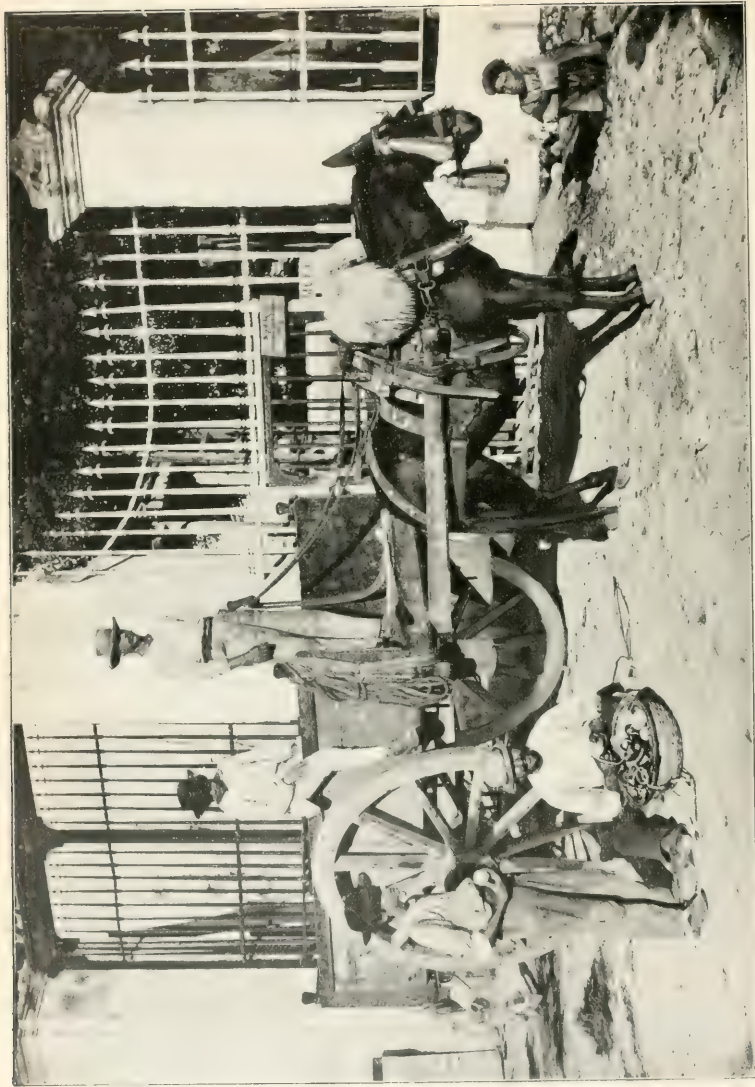
Nothing more interesting for the conclusion of this chapter can be offered than Columbus' own account of his first view of the island of Cuba. It is as follows:

1 "When I reached Juana, I followed its coast to the westward, and found it so large that I thought it must be mainland, the province of



SUMMER COTTAGE, RESIDENCE OF THE CAPTAIN GENERAL, HAVANA

During the summer season the metropolis of Cuba becomes oppressively hot, and officials, as well as all other citizens who are able to leave the city for a time, occupy homes in the suburbs or in the mountains, for relief from the more trying weather.



MULE CART, BEFORE THE MARKET PLACE, HAVANA

Public markets are institutions found in every city and town of Cuba and Puerto Rico. Hucksters bring vegetables and fruits of all sorts, and the stalls are occupied by them as well by merchants of cloth and trinkets. Some of the markets are well arranged for ventilation and cleanliness, while others, less cared for, are by no means tempting to one who wants to see where his food comes from.

Cathay; and as I found neither towns nor villages on the sea coast, but only some hamlets, with the inhabitants of which I could not hold conversation, because they all immediately fled, I kept on the same route, thinking that I could not fail to light upon some large cities or towns. At length, after the proceeding of many leagues, and finding that nothing new presented itself, and that the coast was leading me northwards (which I wished to avoid, because the winter had already set in, and it was my intention to move southwards; and because moreover the winds were contrary), I resolved not to wait for a change in the weather, but to return to a certain harbor which I had remarked, and from which I sent two men ashore to ascertain whether there was any king or large cities in that part. They journeyed for three days, and found countless small hamlets, with numberless inhabitants, but with nothing like order; they therefore returned. In the meantime I had learned from some other Indians, whom I had seized, that this land was certainly an island; accordingly, I followed the coast eastward for a distance of 107 leagues, where it ended in a cape. From this cape I saw another island to the eastward, at a distance of eighteen leagues from the former, to which I gave the name of La Espanola. Thither I went and followed its northern coast (just the same as I had done with the coast of Juana), 118 full miles due east. This island, like all others, is extraordinarily large, and this one extremely so. In it are many seaports, with which none that I know in Christendom can bear comparison, so good and capacious that it is a wonder to see. The lands are high, and there are many lofty mountains, with which the islands of Teneriffe cannot be compared. They are all most beautiful, of a thousand different shapes, accessible, and covered with trees of a thousand kinds, of such great height that they seem to reach the skies. I am told that the trees never lose their foliage, and I can well understand it, for I observed that they were as green and luxuriant as in Spain in the month of May. Some were in bloom, others bearing fruit, and others otherwise, according to their nature. The nightingale was singing, as well as other little birds of a thousand different kinds, and that in November, the month in which I was roaming amongst them. There are palm trees of six or eight kinds, wonderful

WHAT COLUMBUS
THOUGHT
OF CUBA.

in their beautiful variety; but this is the case with all other trees and fruits and grasses. It contains extraordinary pine groves and very extensive plains. There is also honey and a great variety of birds, and many different kinds of fruits. In the interior there are many mines of metals, and a population innumerable."

No one can be absolutely certain where the bones of the great discoverer, Christopher Columbus, now rest. What purported to be his remains had been removed from Santo Domingo many years ago by the Spanish for interment in Havana. But other excavations in Santo Domingo at a later time seemed to prove conclusively that the coffin thus removed was not that of Columbus. What was identified as his own coffin was found in a neighboring tomb and according to the people of Santo Domingo, and the best students of such affairs, still remains in that city.

The casket purporting to contain the ashes of Columbus was received in Spain with great honor and given interment there. Cubans and Americans alike can well afford to permit Spain any sentimental satisfaction she may get out of her conviction that the dust of the great explorer rests in Spanish soil.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

FROM COLUMBUS TO WEYLER.

How Spain Gained Her Hold on Cuba—Failing Efforts to Change the Indian Name of the Island—First Settlement Made by the Spaniards—When Santiago Was the Capital—Rapid Increase of the Population and Commerce—The First American Siege of Havana—Disastrous Losses in the British Army and Navy—Capture of the City—Restoration of Cuba to the Spaniards—When Oppression and Misrule Multiplied—The Slave Trade Flourishing—The Beginning of Insurrections—The Ten Years' War—The Murder of the Students—The Treaty of Zanjon—The Coming of Weyler.

THE history of Cuba, from the time of its discovery to the day when Spain surrendered by compulsion her claim to the island, has been one long record of oppression and crime. The peaceful inhabitants who were in possession when the explorers first touched the soil were slaughtered and enslaved, and this was the commencement of a rule where might was master, and a government that claimed all and gave nothing in return. For over 400 years Spain retained her hold on this beautiful land, and by her short sighted policy of oppression she succeeded in bringing misery and death, not only to the original inhabitants, but also to the descendants of her own people, who, under kindlier rule, would have been loyal subjects of the crown.

Juana was the name given to the island of Cuba at the time of its discovery by Columbus. This was in honor of Prince John, the son of Ferdinand and Isabella, under whose patronage the great navigator made the voyages which resulted in giving to Spain new countries to conquer and new peoples to despoil. When the Spanish began to colonize the island, they changed its name to Fernandina, and again a few years later to Santiago. Afterwards, probably to demonstrate their great piety, they called it Ave Maria. But while the conquerors succeeded eventually in obliterating all trace of the original

**CUBA THE NAME
GIVEN BY
THE INDIANS.**

inhabitants, the Indian name still clings to the island, and as Cuba it will probably be known to the end of time.

The Spanish explorers found in Cuba a race of inoffensive and friendly people, who received them with every mark of confidence and regard. They took possession of the island, murdered and enslaved the inhabitants, and in little more than a century from the time of the landing of Columbus, the adventurers who followed him had waged a war of extermination so successfully that in all Cuba there was hardly a native to be found.

The first permanent settlement made by the Spaniards was at the town of Baracoa, not far from the extreme eastern point of the island, and for many years this settlement was regarded as the capital of the colony. In 1514 the towns of Trinidad and Santiago de Cuba were founded on the south coast, and in 1522 the seat of government was removed to the last named city, which by this time had greatly increased in population and wealth, and was the metropolis of the island. A settlement was made where the town of Batabano now stands, in 1515, and was called San Cristobal de la Havana, in honor of the great discoverer, but four years later the name was transferred to the city on the north coast which is now the capital.

The island increased rapidly in population, the wonderful fertility of the soil, and the unlimited opportunities for acquiring wealth making it a Mecca for thousands of emigrants from the mother country. During the time of the conquest of Mexico, Havana was an outfitting point for the expeditions, and immense profits were realized from the sale of provisions and supplies for the army of invasion.

During the early history of the island, the cities of the coast suffered great losses from the continual and determined attacks of pirates, whose ships infested the West Indian waters. At one time Santiago was almost depopulated on account of the depredations of these rovers of the seas. In July, 1762, the English Armada, commanded by Lord Albemarle and Admiral Pococke, appeared off the coast of Cuba with an armament of nineteen ships of the line, six frigates and nearly 200 transports and slave ships. The object of the expedition was the capture of the city of Havana.

**DEPREDATIONS
OF THE
BUCCANEERS.**

James Trumbull, in his "History of Connecticut," gives the following account of the siege of the city, and incidentally mentions the part taken by American soldiers in the war:

Lord Albemarle was appointed to command the operations by land. His lordship had been trained to war from his youth, under the command of the duke of Cumberland. The fleet destined for the service was under command of Admiral Pococke, who had before commanded with such success in the East Indies. The object of the expedition was Havana. In this city centered the whole trade and navigation of the Spanish West Indies. The fleet sailed from Portsmouth on the 5th of March. This was to be reinforced by a squadron from Martinique, under command of Sir James Douglass. On the 27th of May two fleets formed a junction at Cape Nichola, the northwest point of Hispaniola. The fleet consisted of thirty-seven ships of war, with nearly an hundred and fifty transports. The land force on board was about ten thousand men. Four thousand regular troops from New York were ordered to join them at the Havana. A considerable number of provincials enlisted under their own officers and served in this arduous enterprise. The whole land force, when collected, would amount to about fifteen or sixteen thousand men.

The admiral was not insensible how much the success of the expedition depended on dispatch, that it might be carried into execution before the coming on of the hurricane months. Therefore, instead of keeping the common track of the galleons to the north of Cuba, which was much the safest, though far the most tedious passage, he determined to pursue his course from east to west, through the Straits of Bahama. This is a narrow passage, about seven hundred miles in length. It is bounded on the right and left with so many shoals and sands that the navigation is dangerous for single ships. Yet such were the cautions and admirable dispositions of the admiral that he carried this fleet of nearly two hundred sail safely through this perilous passage. On the 5th of June, Havana, the object of this long voyage, and of so many anxious hopes and fears, presented itself to the view of the fleet and army. On the 17th the troops were landed, and for more than two months every exertion of courage, every art of war, with the most in-

**DANGEROUS NAVI-
GATION TO
REACH HAVANA.**

vincible patience and perseverance, under almost insuperable difficulties, were unitedly employed by officers and soldiers, by the fleet and army, for the reduction of this important island. The fortresses were strong by nature and art. The enemy made a gallant and noble defense. The climate was burning, and the want of water great and almost insufferably distressing. Never were British valor and resolution put to a severer trial. Some of the soldiers dropped down dead, under the pressure of heat, thirst and fatigue. Before the middle of July the army, in this unwholesome and burning region, and under the rigor of such extraordinary services, was reduced to half its original numbers. Five thousand soldiers and three thousand seamen were ill at one time. The hearts of the most sanguine sunk within them while they saw this fine army wasting by disease, and they could not but tremble for that noble fleet which had so long been exposed along the open shore and must, in all human probability, suffer inevitable ruin should the hurricane season come on before the reduction of the place. As the season advanced the prospect grew more and more unfavorable. But when the troops were on the point of total despondency the arrival of troops from North America revived their drooping spirits, gave fresh vigor to their operations, and was of the most signal service.

Such was the zeal of the New Englanders in his majesty's service, that not only many of them enlisted with a particular view to the reduction of Havana; but such of them as had assisted in the conquest of Martinique, and by reason of sickness had set off in three ships for their native country for their recovery, soon finding their health restored, ordered the ships about, and steering directly for Havana, shared in the dangers and honors of that glorious enterprise.

In the acquisition of Havana were combined all the advantages that could be procured in war. It was a military victory of the first magnitude; it was equal to the greatest naval victory by its effects on the marine of the Spaniards, who lost on that occasion a whole fleet. The vast quantity of tobacco and sugar collected at Havana on the Spanish monarch's account, sold on the spot, exclusive of the ships and merchandise sent to and sold in England, for seven hundred thousand pounds, which was divided amongst the conquerors.

Had England pursued the policy at this time which has since made her the greatest nation on the globe, and retained possession of Cuba, the map of the western world, and of North America in particular, would undoubtedly present a different appearance from what it does to-day. But the men who shaped the conduct of Great Britain's affairs at that date did not take advantage of the victory, and the peace treaty of Paris was signed, which gave back to Spain, Cuba and the Philippines.

The peace having been concluded in 1763, the Conde de Ricala arrived at Havana on the 30th of June, bringing the powers conferred by the treaty for the restoration of the British conquests in the island of Cuba, and accompanied by General O'Reilly, with four ships of the line, a number of transports, and 2,000 men for the supply of the garrison. On their arrival they were received by the English with every demonstration of respect. On the 7th of July the keys of the city were formally delivered up to the Conde de Ricala, on whom the government had been conferred, and the English garrison was embarked on its return to Europe.

The restoration of the island to the Spaniards is regarded by the native writers as the true era from whence its aggrandizement and prosperity are to be dated.

For a time the island was governed in a manner that called for slight criticism. Public assemblies of citizens were held to elect the members of the corporations; free and bold charges were made and sustained against governors; and no taxation was permitted which was not sanctioned by these bodies, who exercised the same prerogatives in the Spanish peninsula, during the long suspension of representative government.

**WHEN CUBA
WAS HONESTLY
GOVERNED.**

Cuba, on her part, repaid the liberality of the mother country by an unwavering loyalty. Unseduced by the alluring prospect of independence, and undismayed by repeated invasions from foreign powers, she shut her eyes to the former and resisted the latter, at the liberal expense of the treasures of the island, and the lives of the inhabitants. But gradually the liberties of the people were curtailed, while the demands of their rulers became more and more oppressive. In 1834

General Tacon was appointed captain-general of Cuba, and arrived in Havana to assume the duties of the office. He was one of the Spanish officers who had suffered defeat in the war for the independence of the Spanish colonies in South America, and was a man of narrow views, unreasonable prejudices, and uncommon stubbornness of character. During his term of office he was as severe with the Cubans as he was lenient with the old Spaniards, who alone were appointed to offices of honor and profit under the government. Such a policy worked out a breach between Cubans and Spaniards, wide enough to prevent them combining against misrule. Taxation grew heavier from year to year, and Cuban persecution increased, now by summary expulsion of suspected parties, now through trial of others by court-martial, under a royal decree which declared that the king of Spain, "for the important end of preserving in that precious island (Cuba) his legitimate sovereign authority and public tranquillity through proper means, has resolved, in accordance with the opinion of his council of ministers, to give to your excellency the fullest authority, bestowing upon you all the powers which by royal ordinances are granted to the governors of besieged cities. In consequence of this his majesty gives to your excellency the most complete and unbounded power."

ABSOLUTE POWER
GIVEN TO THE
CAPTAIN-GENERAL.

The slave trade continued to flourish between Africa and Cuba, to the great advantage of the Spaniards who controlled that concession, and who, in the face of their enormous profits from it, did not complain of the growing taxation.

A case of Cuban court-martialing occurred during the year 1844, when, in consequence of the report of a plot among the African slaves of the sugar plantations about Matanzas for a rising against the white people, several officers of the permanent military commission at Havana for the trial of political offences, were detailed to form a court-martial under the presidency of Brigadier-General Salas at Matanzas, in order to trace out the reported plot and punish the culprits. Many persons were arrested and closely examined, but as by the usual mode of examination no clue to the alleged plot was found, the prosecution determined to resort to torture, the unwilling witness being flogged while stretched face downward on a ladder. This process of eliciting

evidence, first applied to African slaves, was soon extended to free colored creoles, and then into the circle of white people. Out of 3,076 prisoners placed on trial, 1,846 were found guilty, and punished by death, banishment, or sentences to hard labor for varying terms.

This affair was only one of many instances of outrages on the people of Cuba, which finally led up to the insurrections of 1849-1851, and the bloody ten years' war, which commenced in 1868. In this latter revolution some of the most horrible crimes ever perpetrated by people who claim connection with a civilized nation were committed by the home guards. These were organizations of Spanish residents of the island, who volunteered to assist in putting down the insurrection.

**BRUTALITY OF
THE VOLUNTEER
SOLDIERS.**

Their first feat of arms at Havana was to fire volley after volley upon the main entrance of a theatre, and on the people as they came out at the end of a play, performed, it was supposed, for the benefit of the insurgents, the performers being Cubans. Their next exploit was an assault upon the residence of a prominent Cuban gentleman, who happened to be away with his family at the time in one of his sugar estates, fortunately for their personal safety; but their rich household goods were despoiled by the miscreants. Later on, they deposed Captain-General Dulce and constrained him to return to Spain, smarting under the indignity offered him and the home government, which had appointed him only a few months previous to his lawless deposition. But the authorities at Madrid submitted to the outrage, and this emboldened the volunteers, who soon deposed Brigadier-General Lopez-Pinto from the governorship of Matanzas, and began to turn out in force throughout the country, where many innocent men, women and children were wantonly murdered by them. Hundreds of Cubans were torn from their families and shipped off under volunteer escort to distant penal colonies of Spain.

In November, 1871, forty-three medical students of the University of Havana were arrested and subjected to trial by court-martial, at the demand of the volunteers. The cause alleged was that these boys while at the general cemetery had scratched the glass plate of a vault containing the remains of a volunteer. The students were defended by an officer

**THE STORY OF
THE UNFORTUNATE
STUDENTS.**

of the Spanish army, and the trial resulted in their acquittal. But the volunteers demanded a new trial, and the captain-general complied with their wish, by ordering a court of five army officers with nine volunteer captains and a major of the army to conduct the prosecution. These officers, organized into a court-martial, soon condemned eight of the unfortunate boys to death, while their remaining companions were sentenced to hard labor.

On the following day, November 27, 15,000 volunteers turned out under arms and the death-doomed boys were shot by a detachment from that force. This heinous deed produced consternation throughout Cuba, and elicited a burst of indignation from every civilized nation on the face of the globe. Even the Spanish parliament execrated the Havana volunteers, but required no atonement for the crime.

The ten years' war was ended in February, 1878, by what is known as the treaty of Zanjón. By this treaty the Spanish government promised many reforms, but subsequent events showed that the painful lesson of the war was entirely lost on the mother country. Instead of inaugurating a redeeming policy that would heal the recent wounds, allay public anxiety, and quench the thirst for justice felt by the people, who were desirous to enjoy their natural rights, the government, while lavish in promises of reform, persisted in carrying on, unchanged, its old and crafty system, the groundwork of which continued to be the same, namely: To exclude every native Cuban from every office that could give him any effective influence and intervention in public affairs; the ungovernable exploitation of the colonists' labor for the benefit of Spanish commerce and Spanish bureaucracy, both civil and military. To carry out the latter purpose it was necessary to maintain the former at any cost.

Under these circumstances it is not surprising that the people of the island who had taken part in the heroic struggle for their liberty soon began to make preparations for another rebellion. They had had enough of promises that were made only to be broken, and were determined that when the time was ripe for them to again take up arms against their oppressors, they would continue the contest until the last trace of Spanish rule was banished from the island forever.

**BEGINNING PREP-
ARATIONS FOR
ANOTHER WAR.**

During the period immediately preceding the outbreak of the last Cuban insurrection, the island advanced in agriculture and commerce with remarkable rapidity. Even the oppression of Spanish rule and the enormous volume of money drained from the island by oppressive taxation and dishonest officials from Spain were unable to prevent progress. By nothing is the marvelous future of the island more plainly prophesied than by a study of these facts. The fruitfulness of the island was such that its production was able to outstrip even the rapacity of Spain. Individuals suffered poverty and oppression by this drain upon the island, and still it struggled forward into a wider commerce and more intimate association with the rest of the world. Finally, driven by every sentiment that makes men strive for righteousness, justice and freedom, the people rose against their oppressors.

So began the revolution of 1895. Cubans of all classes flocked to the standards of the leaders. Spain realized that this was to be the supreme effort of the revolutionists, and sent Campos, her greatest general, to crush them. He failed and was recalled. Then came Weyler—Weyler the “butcher.” For over 400 years Cuba had been under the heel of Spanish cruelty, but the coming of Weyler was the beginning of the end.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

INSURRECTIONS IN CUBA.

No Peace for the Oppressed Island—South American Patriots Attempt to Free Cuba—

The Work of Filibusters—Outbreak of the Ten Years' War—Cubans Adopt a Declaration of Independence—Progress of the Insurrection—Sympathy from the Republics of South and North America—Years of Blood and Warfare—Capture of the Virginius and Execution of American Citizens—General Martinez Campos in Command—A Treaty of Peace between Spanish and Insurgents—Abolition of Slavery in the Island—Cuban Patriots Continue Active—Outbreak of the Last Insurrection—Uselessness of the Trocha—Maceo's Campaign in Pinar del Rio—Weyler Succeeds Campos—The Reconcentration Decree.

FOR nearly an hundred years there has been no time in the island of Cuba when there was absolute peace. Occasionally some years would elapse without active warfare, but even then revolutionary leaders were constantly at work planning rebellion against Spanish domination. For a long time the better class of citizens of the island was not in sympathy with these insurrections, preferring to bear the ills of Spanish misrule rather than to wage a war in which they recognized their own inability to carry it unaided to a successful close. Under these circumstances, failure was the inevitable result of each succeeding effort.

After the Spanish colonies in the western world had gained their liberty, under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, that hero of South American independence determined that Cuba also should be free. He used every means in his power to secure the support of the United States in his undertaking, but in this he was unsuccessful, and the Spanish authorities having put to death a number of commissioners who had been sent by him to Cuba for the purpose of inciting rebellion, he was forced to abandon the attempt.

Bolivar converted some of the leading men of the island to the home rule idea, however, and they took up the task of bringing others to their

views. From 1848 to 1854 a number of uprisings took place, and in these the Cubans were assisted by men from the southern portion of the United States, who were scheming for Cuban annexation. The principal movement of this character was under command of Narciso Lopez, a native of Venezuela, who had been a general in the Spanish army. The second in command was W. S. Crittenden of Kentucky, a West Point graduate, and though but twenty-eight years of age, a hero of the Mexican war.

**FILIBUSTERING
EXPEDITIONS
TO CUBA.**

They set sail from New Orleans with a force of about 600 men, and captured the town of Cardenas, on the north coast of Cuba. They met with no encouragement from the people of the island, however, and realizing that without that support they could not hope to accomplish any lasting results, the invaders returned to the United States. Shortly after this fiasco, Lopez and Crittenden organized another expedition and set sail for Cuba, landing at Bahia Honda. They marched a few miles into the interior, where a detachment of the Spanish army commanded by General Heina met them and gave battle. The force under Lopez gained an easy victory, and the Spanish general was killed.

But this success was only momentary, for they were in a section of the island where the Spanish forces were the strongest and the revolutionary sentiment the weakest, and Lopez soon found himself overpowered. Crittenden had remained at the coast for the purpose of forming a base of operations, and hearing nothing from Lopez he realized that the movement was a failure. He attempted to escape by taking to the sea in open boats, but was captured, with fifty of his men, by the Spanish admiral, Brestillo, and all were executed under the walls of the fort. Lopez found some sympathizers, but there was no demonstration in his favor as he had expected, and his army was easily dispersed. He was captured and put to death with the garrote in Havana.

**EXECUTION
OF CRITTENDEN
OF KENTUCKY.**

There were a number of unimportant uprisings during the next few years, but none of any consequence until after the civil war in the United States.

On October 10, 1868, an insurrection broke out which was the com-

mencement of the bitter Ten Years' war. The fact that the mother country was in the midst of internal dissensions which threatened to overthrow the government, caused the revolutionary leaders in Cuba to hasten the movement, and gave them hope of success. A declaration of independence was issued dated Manzanillo, October 10, which thus stated the reasons for and the object of the movement:

"In arming ourselves against the tyrannical government of Spain we must, according to precedent in all civilized countries, proclaim before the world the cause that impels us to take this step, which, though likely to entail considerable disturbances upon the present, will insure the happiness of the future.

"It is well known that Spain governs the island of Cuba with an iron and bloodstained hand. The former holds the latter deprived of political, civil, and religious liberty. Hence the unfortunate Cubans being illegally prosecuted and thrown into exile or executed by military commissioners in times of peace; hence their being kept from public meetings and forbidden to speak or write on affairs of state; hence their remonstrances against the evils that afflict them being looked on as the proceedings of rebels, from the fact that they are bound to keep silent and obey; hence the never-ending plague of hungry officials from Spain

**THE FIRST CUBAN
DECLARATION OF
INDEPENDENCE.**

to devour the product of their industry and labor; hence their exclusion from public stations and want of opportunity to skill themselves in the art of government; hence the restrictions to which public instruction with them is subjected, in order to keep them so ignorant as not to be able to know and enforce their rights in any shape or form whatever; hence the navy and standing army, which are kept upon their country at an enormous expenditure from their own wealth, to make them bend their knees and submit their necks to the iron yoke that disgraces them. Hence the grinding taxation under which they labor, and which would make them all perish in misery but for the marvelous fertility of the soil.

"To the God of our conscience and to all civilized nations we submit the sincerity of our purpose. Vengeance does not mislead us, nor is ambition our guide. We only want to be free and see all men with us equally free, as the Creator intended all mankind to be. Our earnest belief is that all men are brethren. Hence our love of toleration, order,

and justice in every respect. We desire the gradual abolition of slavery, with indemnification; we admire universal suffrage, as it insures the sovereignty of the people; we demand a religious regard for the inalienable rights of man as the basis of freedom and national greatness."

The movement spread rapidly over the whole of the eastern and central departments. Ten days later, the general-in-chief of the Cuban forces, Carlos Manuel Cespedes, and the members of the provisional government addressed a letter to the government of the United States, in which they asked for recognition as belligerents, and gave the following account of their strength:

"We now hold much more than fifty leagues of the interior of this island in the eastern department, among which are the people (or communities) of Jiguani, Tunas, Baire, Yara, Barrancas, Datil, Cauto, Embarcadero, Guisa, and Horno, besides the cities of Bayamo and Holguin, in all numbering 107,853 inhabitants, who obey us, and have sworn to shed to the last drop of blood in our cause.

In the mentioned city of Bayamo we have established a provisional government and formed our general quarters, where we hold more than 300 of the enemy prisoners, taken from the Spanish army, among whom are generals and governors of high rank. All this has been accomplished in ten days, without other resources than those offered by the country we have passed through, without other arms than those taken from the enemy, and without other losses than three or four killed and six or eight wounded."

**CONDITIONS
OF THE
INSURRECTION.**

From the beginning of this uprising, the Cuban insurgents met with the most cordial sympathy in South America. The governments of Chili and Peru formally recognized the revolutionists. A letter written by the president of Peru to General Cespedes, "Captain-General of the Liberating Army of Cuba," contained the following paragraph: "The president of Peru sympathizes deeply with the noble cause of which your excellency constitutes himself the worthy champion, and he will do his utmost to mark the interest which that island, so worthy of taking its place with the civilized nations of the world, inspires him with. The Peruvian government recognizes as belligerents the party which is fighting for the independence of Cuba, and will strive its utmost to secure their recognition as such by other nations; and likewise that the

war should be properly regulated in conformity with international usages and laws."

The sympathy in all the other republics was equally outspoken. In the United States, public opinion was very strong in favor of the insurgents, and showed itself in a large number of mass meetings, in resolu-

tions in congress, and in the fitting out of a number of expeditions. This sympathy was also expressed in the message of President Grant, in December, 1869; on the other hand, however, the message took the

ground that "the contest had at no time assumed the conditions which amount to a war in the sense of international law, or which would show the existence of a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient to justify a recognition of belligerency."

Meanwhile the insurrection was continued with unabated vigor, and, although it did not gain ground, nor obtain any signal advantage, the Spanish authorities were unable to suppress it, and the war was waged on both sides with a degree of ferocity and a disregard of human life unknown in modern warfare. The destruction of property was immense, the torch of the Spaniard and the Cuban alike, busy in carrying devastation over fertile regions. The decrees issued and executed by both parties were bloody and revengeful. The Spaniards besides having to fight a desperate enemy, perfectly familiar with all the mountain recesses in the interior of the island, saw their number decimated by the climate and by disease. Although they were in possession of every sea-port on the island, they did not succeed in preventing the landing of fire-arms and ammunition for the insurgents. The hostile feeling which drove so great a number of the native inhabitants to armed resistance continued unabated, and although there were cases during the conduct of the war where Cuban leaders surrendered with their commands, new recruits filled the ranks, consisting of either the young natives, or of filibusters from abroad.

In October, 1873, an unforeseen event occurred which seemed for a time to bring to the friends of Cuban independence the sudden realization of their hopes. On the thirty-first day of that month, the *Virginus*, a ship sailing under the American flag, was captured on the high seas, near Jamaica, by the Spanish steamer *Tornado*, on the ground that it



THE CUBAN VILLAGE OF EL CANEY

This name is famous in the annals of the war for the bravery displayed in the fighting which centered here, and the heavy losses resulting. During the battle Spanish sharpshooters were stationed in the tower of the old church and afterward the same building was used as a hospital for wounded Spanish soldiers.



COURTYARD OF CUBAN HOUSE, HAVANA

Like the houses in most Spanish-American countries, the residences of Cuba are built with a courtyard or patio in the center. This is ornamented with all sorts of tropical flowers and fruits, and becomes the general resting-place and living room for the family and their guests.

intended to land men and arms in Cuba for the insurgent army. The crew was taken to Santiago de Cuba, where fifty-three of their number, including Captain Frye, were slaughtered. Their remaining companions, to the number of some 130, would have shared the same fate, but for the sudden appearance of the British sloop-of-war, *Niobe*, under Commander Lorrain, who peremptorily required the governor of the province to stop his bloody work.

**THE FAMOUS CASE
OF THE
VIRGINIUS.**

The universal excitement in the United States at the conduct of the Spanish authorities in this affair, for a time appeared to make a war between the United States and Spain inevitable, and the Cubans hoped that such a war would cause the immediate expulsion of the Spaniards from the island. The hopes thus raised were, however, doomed to disappointment, as the diplomatic negotiations opened between the United States and Spain led to a peaceable settlement of the whole difficulty.

During 1874, fresh troops from Spain took the field by thousands, the Spanish forces having sustained very heavy losses in the preceding year. A lull ensued in the insurrectionary districts, with the exception of Camaguey and eastern Cuba, where the insurgents attacked every now and then the Spanish columns escorting heavy trains of war materials and provisions, which were usually captured by the Cuban forces. But meantime partisan strife raised its head among the struggling Cubans, and eventually their number was reduced to barely 5,000 men, scattered in bands of a few hundred each. But even these few men were enabled by their mighty ally, the climate, to cause the Spanish troops severe losses by steadily harassing them.

Such losses were nevertheless amply covered with 25,000 men, who arrived from Spain under the leadership of General Martinez Campos, who was given the command of the Spanish forces in Cuba. He deployed his troops as he deemed best for a decisive campaign, but seeing them frequently baffled in eastern Cuba and constantly harassed in the central portion of the island, he finally resorted to negotiations with insurgent chieftains to bring the war to an end. Success rewarded his efforts in this direction, for early in the year 1878 an armistice was agreed to between the belligerents in Camaguey, where

**CUBANS AND
SPANISH TIRE
OF WARFARE.**

the seat of the insurgent government was at the time, and here the Cuban chamber of deputies held a session to consider the overtures of General Campos for peace.

The chamber appointed a committee of nine members to wait on General Vicente Garcia, who had been recently chosen president of the tottering republic of Cuba, and arrange for a meeting. This meeting took place shortly afterwards at Zanjón, in the district of Camaguey. There appeared on the part of Spain, General Campos with a few officers of his staff, and on the part of Cuba, President Garcia, with the committee above mentioned. At that meeting the remaining insurgent forces in war-torn Cuba capitulated, conditional upon the introduction of various government reforms throughout the island.

This war, which lasted for ten years, cost Spain 300,000,000 pesos and 100,000 men, many of whom were victims of yellow fever. Its cost to Cuba in the lives of her sons cannot be accurately stated, but Cuban authorities place the number at from 40,000 to 50,000.

Slavery in the island was abolished in 1880, and this caused fresh disturbances, as the majority of the slave-holders received no compensation. The introduction of the Spanish constitution in 1884 brought little benefit to the people, and their condition continually grew worse instead of better.

The Cuban exiles in the United States and in Costa Rica, Honduras, Santo Domingo, and other parts of Spanish America, continued to plan for the freedom of their beloved island. They organized clubs, collected a war fund, purchased munitions of war, and laid plans with their compatriots in Cuba for a new struggle for independence. There were 140 revolutionary clubs in North and South America, Cuba, and the other West India islands, affiliated under the name of the revolutionary party, ready to support an uprising with financial and moral aid. There were fire-arms on the island that had remained concealed since the former war, some had been bought from corrupt custodians of the government arsenals, and many were smuggled in and hidden away.

**FORMING PLANS
FOR A NEW
INSURRECTION.**

An expedition that planned to sail in the yacht *Lagonda* from Fernandina, Florida, on January 14, 1895, was broken up by the United States authorities. General Antonio Maceo, its leader, with Jose Martí,

the political organizer of the new movement, went to Santo Domingo, where they could confer with the revolutionist leaders living in Cuba.

The plan of the revolutionists was to rise simultaneously in six provinces on February 24. The leaders on the island and the organizers abroad had a thorough understanding. The insurrection broke out on the appointed day, but only in Santiago, Santa Clara, and Matanzas. The latter two are comparatively populous provinces, in which the national troops could occupy strategic points and begin effective offensive operations; but in the wooded, mountainous province of Santiago the insurgents knew plenty of hiding places from which they could harass and gradually exterminate the Spanish troops.

During the Ten Years' war a Spanish engineer conceived the idea of separating that part of the island where the insurgents were in active operation from that part of it where there was no insurrection. For this purpose he proposed the construction of a line between Jucaro, on the south coast, and Moron, on the Junico river, near the north coast. By this line it was proposed to confine the insurrection to the east, where it had begun, and thus prevent its spreading. This line was termed a trocha, which simply signifies a way or path across a country, without regard to its topography or other roads, such as is often cut through a forest to designate the limits of a territory or to make a boundary. The military authorities entered upon the establishment of the line at once, and such stress was laid upon its construction by the Spaniards that it came to be considered as impregnable as the great wall of China.

**CONSTRUCTION OF
THE TROCHA AND
ITS FAILURE.**

But when numerous insurgent chiefs had crossed it and re-crossed it, and the old warrior, Maximo Gomez, had crossed it in company with his wife and servants, the military authorities began to wake up to the worthlessness of their trocha.

Although it was condemned by both Captains-General Balmaceda and Campos, when the latter returned to the island in 1895 and found that the insurgents had entered Camaguey, he hastily distributed nearly 50,000 soldiers along the old line between Jucaro and Moron, hoping to keep the enemy from entering the province of Santa Clara. Forts were rapidly constructed, and trees and undergrowth cleared away for 200 yards each side of the railroad track which ran along the

line; and thus came into existence for a second time the old trocha as a military line.

Scarcely did Campos get his boundary line into effective shape before Gomez, with his retinue of Camaguey recruits crossed it into the jurisdiction of Santo Espiritu, where he immediately began a series of movements with the object of bewildering and tiring the Spanish forces without risking any real engagements. The success of these movements was crowned by the treasonable surrender of the Spanish garrison at Pelayo, with fifty rifles and 23,000 cartridges. For this act the Spanish authorities sentenced Captain Feijo, the commanding officer, to life imprisonment in chains.

The insurgents constantly received recruits to their ranks of Cuban youths and negro field-hands, who, encouraged by the success of the movement, hesitated no longer to take the field. The banditti who had

**RECRUITS FOR
THE INSURGENT
ARMIES.**

always claimed to have been carrying on a war against Spain, in most cases hastened to join the revolutionists, and their leaders were given rank, as were all others who presented themselves with any number of recruits. Those bandits who did not proclaim for the rebellion and many free lances, who imagined that the opportunity had come to reap a harvest of plunder on their own account, were shortly wiped out by the insurgent chiefs, who hanged them wherever captured.

Early in 1896 General Gomez united with General Antonio Maceo near Punta Brava, not many miles from Havana, and the concentrated force numbered 11,700 men. Here it was decided that Gomez should keep up his tactics of moving about with his escort, the bulk of the force should return and distribute itself over Matanzas, while Maceo with 4,000 men should continue into the westernmost province of Pinar del Rio. This plan was immediately put into execution. The Spanish leaders were unprepared for any such movement, and while a column under the command of General Garcia Navarro was sent in pursuit of Maceo, others were sent after Gomez. Maceo's advance into Pinar del Rio was eminently successful. So rapidly did he move that Navarro's column could not get up to him, while the surprised garrisons in front of him surrendered to his surging horde, which was continually being increased by the Cubans, who looked upon the multitude as already having won Cuba's freedom.

Maceo's rapid movement continued along the north coast to the very last towns of Guane and Mantua, where his raids became more like a triumphal procession, the people rising en masse to welcome him. From Mantua he swept southward to the vicinity of the city of Pinar del Rio, and thence he continued his march along the southern highway back to Havana. At Paso Real he was taken by surprise by the column of General Luque, and the famous but indecisive battle of Paso Real ensued. While the Spanish remained in possession of the city, Maceo marched away, and with colors flying entered the town of San Cristobal, where he was received with demonstrations of joy, even by those people who did not favor his cause. General Sabas Marin had hastily formed another trocha across the narrow part of the island between Mariel and Majana, to prevent Maceo's forces joining those of Gomez, and had stationed 8,000 troops in the vicinity of Artemisa to intercept him. Maceo with his usual skill avoided an encounter, crossed the line, and was again in Havana province without having fired a shot.

**GENERALS MACEO
AND LUQUE
IN BATTLE.**

The political policy of Campos was one of conciliation with a promise of reform in the administration of the affairs of the island. His military policy was to meet the insurgents on the field of battle and with superior numbers and resources end the rebellion. Seconded by officers who had learned the science of warfare at home, by planning battles on paper, and with boy soldiers who scarcely knew how to carry a gun, his operations in the field were as great failures as were his attempts to bring about peace by diplomatic means.

The beginning of 1896 saw the entire island, except the cities, in the possession of the insurgents or else in a turmoil. The very people who had protested against the uprising now hailed the chiefs as harbingers of their independence. Gomez was marching back and forth, distributing his bands throughout Matanzas and Havana provinces. The great mass of peasants who inhabited the rural districts would not fight, but the Spanish soon discovered them in coalition with the insurgents, and they misled the soldiers of the crown on every possible occasion. The army called for their punishment, but Campos refused to make war on noncombatants. The Spaniards in Havana, astonished at the rapid

**RECALL OF
GENERAL
MARTINEZ CAMPOS.**

march of the insurgents and the inability of the army to check them, with destruction going on at every hand, demanded the recall of Campos. The home government at Madrid complied with the command, and the man who had been considered Spain's greatest general left Cuba, having failed completely to check the rebellion.

The man chosen by the Spanish government to succeed Campos was General Weyler, who arrived in Havana on February 10, 1896. He had been in Cuba before, having been in command of the province of Santiago during the Ten Years' war, where he gained for himself a reputation for wholesale butchery, and it was probably on account of this reputation that he was selected to quell this later rebellion.

With the troops already in the field in the island, the force at General Weyler's command at the opening of the fall campaign of 1896-97 was not less than 200,000 men, and he decided to take the field in person. He proceeded toward the mountainous region of Pinar del Rio, and made his headquarters near the line of the main railway from Havana to Pinar del Rio city. Thence he sent out columns to search for the rebels, but he was not successful in finding them in force, nor did he fight any decisive engagement.

While he was in the west Maceo met his death at the hands of Spanish troops. When General Weyler finally gave up active operations and seated himself in the palace at Havana he announced that Pinar del Rio was practically free from rebel bands. It was officially announced by General Weyler on January 11, 1897, that three provinces were practically pacified, but, by a seeming paradox, he took the field again on January 19. The bulletins issued from the palace announced sweeping victories for the Spanish in Matanzas and the other provinces which he had declared pacified, showing that the insurgents there were still active.

The last personal campaign, like the first, was one of destruction, and the torch played an important part. When the captain-general left Havana, he did so with the avowed intention of meeting General Gomez in Matanzas, but there was no engagement of consequence. Gomez eluded the Spanish forces, which outnumbered his own by several thousand, and there were only a few skirmishes. In all of these the

**GENERAL WEYLER
AND
HIS POLICY.**

officials in the palace in Havana claimed victories for Spain, with heavy losses to the insurgents.

The most infamous act of Weyler's administration was his reconcentration order, which compelled the noncombatants to abandon their homes in the rural districts and herd like sheep in the cities and towns which were still held by the Spanish arms. This meant starvation for thousands of inoffensive women and children, but notwithstanding the horrible suffering and death which followed, the "butcher" continued the enforcement of the edict, in the face of the protests of the civilized world.

In April, 1896, a change of United States consuls at Havana excited comment. The appointment of General Fitzhugh Lee to succeed Consul-General Williams, was regarded by Americans as well as by the authorities at the palace, as an adroit way of sending a military commissioner from the United States to Cuba. When there was an intimation that Mr. Cleveland contemplated sending a commissioner to learn officially what was going on, the officials at Madrid said very plainly that no military or other commission would be accepted by them, or permitted to pry into affairs in Cuba. There was, therefore, some curiosity as to how General Lee would be received, and as to what facilities would be accorded him for learning what was transpiring outside of the city of Havana. The American residents of Havana welcomed General Lee with open arms, and he soon demonstrated that he was the man for the position. Through his determined efforts, citizens of the United States were afforded a protection that had been denied them before his arrival, and more than one American owes his liberty and his life to the courage and determination of General Lee.

**CONSUL FITZHUGH
LEE GOES TO
HAVANA.**

CHAPTER XXXV.

OUR HOLY WAR WITH SPAIN.

The Destruction of the Battleship Maine—Legislative Preliminaries of the War—Verdict of the Naval Court—American Citizens Leave Havana—Mobilization of the Army—The President's Call for Troops—Congress Declares War—Blockade of the Cuban Coast—Many Prizes Captured—First Engagement of the War—The Affair of the Winslow—Cervera's Fleet in Santiago Harbor—Destruction of the Alfonso XII.—Minor Naval Engagements.

IN THE mind of the American people, the signal event which caused our war with Spain was the destruction of the United States battleship Maine in Havana harbor, and the beginning of hostilities is dated from 9:40 o'clock p. m., February 15, 1898, when the explosion took place that sent the noble ship and many of its brave crew to the bottom of the sea.

But, in fact, the war had been coming for some time before this act of Spanish treachery. Senators and representatives in congress had been agitating for the recognition of Cuban independence for months, for both of the great political parties had adopted planks in their national platforms declaring for the freedom of the island. Some members of congress were in favor of armed intervention, and tangible substance was given the pro-Cuban feeling on February 8, when Senator Allen of Nebraska, Senator Cannon of Utah and Senator Mason of Illinois introduced Cuban resolutions in the senate. Senator Allen offered, as an amendment to the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill, a resolution recognizing the belligerency of the Cuban insurgents; Senator Cannon offered a resolution urging the president to notify the kingdom of Spain that if it did not recognize the independence of Cuba before March 4, 1898, the United States would recognize the belligerency of the Cubans and within ninety days thereafter would assert the independ-

ence of the Cuban republic; Senator Mason offered a resolution requesting the president to notify Spain that the Cuban war must cease and declare the intention of the United States to restore and maintain peace in the island of Cuba.

When the naval court appointed for the purpose of inquiring into the cause of the catastrophe to the *Maine* finished its work, and found that the ship had been destroyed by the explosion of a mine, the responsibility of the Spanish government for the crime could not be questioned. Patience ceased to be a virtue. "Remember the *Maine*" became a national watchword and Congress was overwhelmed by the war spirit. War and Cuban resolutions followed each other in Congress in rapid sequence, and President McKinley, who was watching every move and at the same time putting forth almost superhuman efforts to postpone aggressive action until such time as the navy and army were in better shape, was compelled to give way.

CONGRESS AND
PRESIDENT MOVED
TO ACTION.

On April 3 Fitzhugh Lee, the American consul-general at Havana, was ordered to come home and bring with him all American citizens in the Cuban capital. He left Havana April 9, arriving in Key West the next day. When President McKinley was assured that all Americans were out of Havana he sent to Congress the long-expected message April 11, asking authority to take measures to secure a termination of hostilities in Cuba and to secure in the island the establishment of a stable government and to use the military and naval forces of the United States as might be necessary to carry out his policy. He recommended the continuation of the distribution of food to the starving people of Cuba. There was no reference in his message to Cuban independence.

In anticipation of war, the regular army was ordered to mobilize at Tampa, Mobile, New Orleans and Chickamauga. On April 21 General Woodford, the American minister to Spain, was given his passports by the Spanish government and left Madrid, and the next morning the American fleet, under Admiral Sampson, sailed from Key West to begin a blockade of Havana and the northern coast of Cuba.

President McKinley's ultimatum to the Spanish government demanded a reply on or before noon on Saturday, April 23, and warned

them that at that time their opportunity for a peaceful settlement of the difficulty would end. At the expiration of these days of grace, the President saw that Spain was determined on war, and he began to make preparations for the conflict. He immediately issued a proclamation calling for 125,000 troops, to serve for two years or as long as the war lasted. This proclamation was in the following terms:

**FIRST CALL FOR
125,000 VOLUNTEER
SOLDIERS.**

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES:

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas, by a joint resolution of Congress, approved the 22d of April, 1898, entitled "Joint resolution for the recognition of the independence of the people of Cuba, demanding that the government of Spain relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, to withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters, and directing the President of the United States to use the land and naval forces of the United States to carry these resolutions into effect," and,

Whereas, by an act of Congress, entitled "An act to provide for the increasing of the military establishment of the United States in time of war and for other purposes," approved April 22, 1898, the President was authorized in order to raise a volunteer army to issue his proclamation calling for volunteers to serve in the army of the United States.

Now, therefore, I, William McKinley, President of the United States, by the power vested in me by the constitution and laws, and deeming sufficient occasion to exist, have thought fit to call for and hereby do call for volunteers to the aggregate number of 125,000, in order to carry into effect the purpose of the said resolution, the same to be apportioned, as far as practicable, among the several states and territories and the District of Columbia, according to population, and to serve for two years unless sooner discharged. The details for this object will be immediately communicated to the proper authorities through the war department.

In witness whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at Washington this 23d day of April, 1898, and of the independence of the United States the one hundred and twenty-second.

By the President:

WILLIAM M'KINLEY.

JOHN SHERMAN, Secretary of State.

War between the United States and Spain was declared by Congress in a joint resolution hurriedly passed through both houses and immediately signed by President McKinley on the afternoon of April 25. This was the formal declaration of war, but as a matter of fact war existed from April 21, for on that day the first shotted gun was fired, throwing a six-pound shell from the United States gunboat Nashville across the bow of the Spanish steamer Buena Ventura, the first prize taken by Admiral Sampson's blockading fleet. Following is the declaration of war adopted by Congress April 25:

A bill declaring that war exists between the United States of America and the kingdom of Spain.

Be it enacted, etc.

1. That war be and the same is hereby declared to exist and that war has existed since the 21st day of April, A. D. 1898, including said day, between the United States of America and the kingdom of Spain.

2. That the President of the United States be and he hereby is directed and empowered to use the entire land and naval forces of the United States and to call into the actual service of the United States the militia of the several states to such extent as may be necessary to carry this act into effect.

CONGRESS
DECLARES WAR
AGAINST SPAIN.

The states responded enthusiastically to the call for volunteers, and if all the men who showed a desire to volunteer had been accepted, no nation in the world could have boasted a larger army.

While the troops were massing at Chickamauga and at Tampa, the two principal places for mobilizing the army, the navy had placed a picket line of warships along the north coast of Cuba, all the way from Bahia Honda, west of Havana, to and beyond Cardenas, east of Havana, more than 125 miles, blockading the ports of Bahia Honda, Mariel, Havana, Matanzas, and Cardenas. Cruisers and gunboats swept the Florida straits with long-distance eyes glued to powerful glasses, on the lookout for Spanish colors. Prizes drawn from the Spanish grab-bag soon grew common in Key West, and the arrival of a merchantman belonging to the enemy soon became such an everyday occurrence that it failed to attract any particular attention.

When a prize was captured, it was taken to the flagship New York and reported. Then it was brought to Key West to lie alongside

the other trophies of war. The prizes were known in Key West as "reconcentrados," and the name was well given, for the United States was compelled to feed the crews and passengers until they could make arrangements to leave the island. The people aboard the prizes were not held as prisoners of war; but were at liberty to leave as soon as they liked.

The first actual engagement of the war was on April 27, when the cruisers New York and Cincinnati and the monitor Puritan of the blockading squadron steamed into the bay of Matanzas and drew the fire of the forts. It was returned by the gunners of the flagship, and the Cincinnati and Puritan soon joined in a vigorous cannonade. After twenty minutes' fire the batteries were silenced, and our ships withdrew. The target practice of the New York was an inspiring sight. At every shot clouds of dust and big pieces of stone showed where the Spanish fortifications were suffering. Not a shot from the shore batteries struck the mark, and not the slightest damage was done to any of the ships that took part in the bombardment.

The first loss of life on an American warship in Cuban waters occurred in the bay of Cardenas on the afternoon of May 11. Three vessels—the gunboat Wilmington, the torpedo boat Winslow and the revenue cutter Hudson, which had been taking soundings—tried to sink or capture some Spanish gunboats and were fired on by the masked shore batteries. The Winslow was disabled, and was drifting towards the shore, into the very mouths of the batteries, when she signaled for help. The Hudson, 150 yards away, ran up to tow the torpedo boat out of range. While passing a rope both boats were struck several times, and the Winslow's funnels and ventilators were shot away. Most of the projectiles were solid shot, but just as the Winslow got under way again, a heavy shell struck on her forward deck, and, exploding, killed Ensign Worth Bagley, three firemen and one sailor, and wounded Lieutenant Bernardou, the commander and four others of the crew.

**FIRST AMERICAN
LOSS ON THE
WINSLOW.**

When the shell exploded the hawser parted, and the Winslow's helm went hard to starboard, and, with its steering gear smashed, the boat floundered about in the water at the mercy of the enemy's fire. The

Hudson quickly threw another line to the disabled torpedo boat and pulled it out of the Spaniard's range.

The war had not been long under way when Commodore Schlev caged the Spanish armada, under Admiral Cervera, in the harbor of Santiago, and the scene of battle shifted to the south coast of Cuba. On this account it was not until the 6th of July that another engagement of any moment took place on the north shore of the island. On that date three boats of the blockading fleet, the Hawk, the Prairie and the Castine, put to flight two gunboats of the enemy, beached and burned the Alfonso XII., a transport of 5,000 tons, loaded with ammunition, and silenced the batteries that joined in the fight.

The battle began off Havana, to which port the Alfonso XII. was headed from the west. Lieutenant Hood of the Hawk was circling about with his boat six miles west of Morro, when the forward lookout sighted a huge four-masted steamer creeping along in the shade of the shore. His "sail ho" warned the captain of the steamer that he was discovered, and he turned at the cry and steamed rapidly westward toward Mariel. The Hawk did not lose a moment, but immediately gave chase. Twenty miles from Morro, Lieutenant Hood fired his first shots. The gunners of the Hawk poured six pounders upon the flying steamer, and she ran for the harbor of Mariel, where she struck a bar on the west side of the entrance and stuck fast. With wild cheers the Hawk's crew attempted to board the prize, but her rails were lined with riflemen, and they were driven back to their ship.

They guarded their prize till morning, and then, seeing her fast aground, they returned to the fleet to secure assistance in taking her. The Castine was sent to aid in the work, but the shore batteries opened on them, and after two hours' fighting, they were compelled to send for re-enforcements. The Prairie was dispatched to engage the batteries, and soon succeeded in silencing them. The infantry in the rifle-pits supporting the batteries were driven out by the Castine, the Alfonso XII. was taken and added to the long list of prizes to the credit of the blockading squadron.

**SHARP FIGHTING
ON A BIG
SPANISH PRIZE.**

Of so much greater importance were the events transpiring before Santiago, that the progress of the war along the north coast of Cuba

and elsewhere on the south coast was given but scant attention either by writers or readers of the news. It is necessary to say, however, that not only during the Santiago campaign, but during the weeks following the surrender of that city, up to the very day of the signature of the peace protocol, the navy was active in maintaining the blockade. Several daring efforts were made by Spanish blockade runners to convey relief to the beleaguered cities, but in every case the effort was frustrated.

The "mosquito fleet" maintained the blockade after the big fighters had gone to Santiago in a manner that was highly creditable to officers, men and vessels. Tug boats, torpedo boats and pleasure yachts converted into gunboats, all armed with rapid-firing guns and capable of traveling at a high rate of speed, made the waters of the channel between the Florida Keys and Cuba untenable for anything flying the Spanish flag. Once in awhile a Spanish gunboat would make a sortie from the harbor, only to be driven back disabled. Many such encounters resulted in the destruction of Spanish boats and the capture of others as prizes.

On the south coast of Cuba similar events were happening. At Manzanillo, Trinidad and Cienfuegos there were sharp little naval battles quite worth describing if they were not so overshadowed by the

**BRAVERY OF THE
COAST BLOCKADE
SERVICE.**

greater events before Santiago. Blockade service off the Cuban coast in small boats is an experience quite as trying as any sailor can undergo, and it would be an injustice not to acknowledge the character of the service as it was conducted during those long weeks. The officers and men thus occupied were out of reach of the glorious victory of Santiago, but their work was just as essential and credit should not fail for it.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

HEROES OF SANTIAGO ON LAND AND SEA.

Cervera's Cruise to the West Indies—Hobson and the Sinking of the Merrimac—The Marines at Guantanamo Bay—Desperate Fighting Day and Night—Voyage of the Transports from Tampa to the Cuban Coast—Landing at Baiquiri—The First Battle of the Rough Riders—El Caney and San Juan Hill—Surrender of Santiago Demanded—Admiral Cervera Attempts to Escape from Santiago Harbor—Total Destruction of the Spanish Fleet—Splendid Work of American Ships and Sailors—General Miles Arrives in Cuba—Surrender of the Spanish Forces and the City—Santiago in Possession of the Americans.

WHEN Admiral Cervera, commanding the Spanish armada, sailed for the West Indies, his destination was San Juan de Puerto Rico, where he expected to put in for coal and supplies. This intention was learned by the naval authorities at Washington, who immediately ordered Admiral Sampson to intercept him at that point and destroy his fleet. When Cervera touched at Curacao he heard of Sampson's bombardment of San Juan, and he turned towards the south coast of Cuba. At this time Commodore Schley's squadron was closing in on Cervera from the east, cutting off escape in that direction.

It was believed that Cienfuegos was the destination of Admiral Cervera, as railway communication between there and Havana would enable him to send guns and ammunition from his ships to Captain-General Blanco for the defense of the capital. Instead, however, he took refuge in the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. Commodore Schley discovered that he was guarding an empty harbor at Cienfuegos and moved eastward to the older city which became the center of operations. The combined fleets of Commodore Schley and Admiral Sampson, the latter in command, then began a close blockade of the harbor of Santiago, which lasted for several weeks, until Admiral Cervera attempted to escape.

On the morning of June 3, eight men of the navy performed the most daring deed of the war by sinking the steam collier Merrimac in the harbor entrance to Santiago de Cuba under the fire of the Spanish batteries. Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson, naval constructor assigned to the flagship New York, with a crew of seven, took the big coal-carrier into the channel just before the dawn, pushed her through the guarding line of torpedoes, and under a perfect hail of shot and shell sunk the vessel in a position which, it was hoped, would prevent the outcoming of Admiral Cervera's squadron.

**THE MOST
DARING DEED
OF THE WAR.**

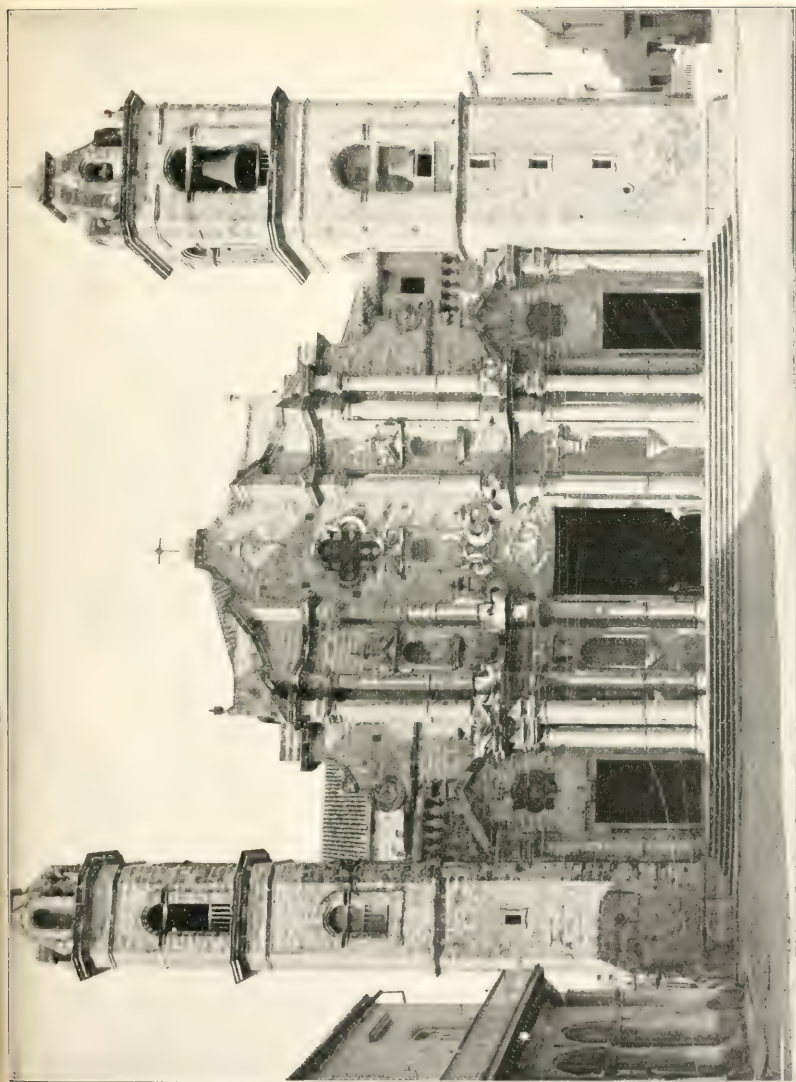
The affair was an exhibition of calculating courage and indomitable energy, the men who performed the task entering upon their work in the firm belief that death and glory would be the end of their endeavor to perform a signal service to the country.

These were the heroes:

Lieutenant Richmond P. Hobson, naval constructor, flagship New York; Daniel Montague, master-at-arms, flagship New York; George Charette, gunner's mate, flagship New York; J. C. Murphy, cockswain, Iowa; Oscar Deignan, cockswain, Merrimac; John P. Phillips, machinist, Merrimac; John Kelley, water tender, Merrimac; H. Clausen, cockswain, flagship New York.

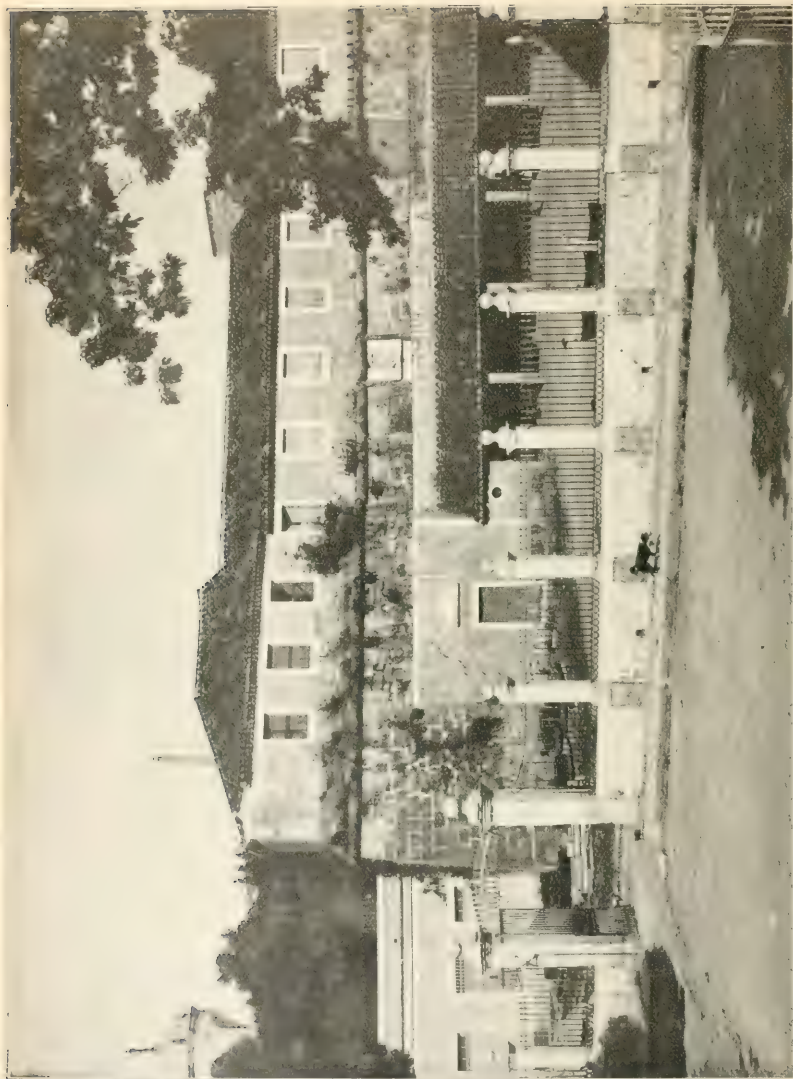
Naval Cadet Powell of the New York, with a picked crew of six men volunteered from various ships, also shares in the glory, for he went close in to the mouth of the harbor in a steam cutter, awaiting an opportunity to rescue any of the men who might escape alive, and remained pluckily at his post until daylight, when he was driven away by a terrific fire from shore.

It was Hobson's idea to block the harbor by sinking a ship across the channel. He submitted his plan to Admiral Sampson, and, after much consultation, it was decided to allow him to try. Death to those engaging in the enterprise seemed certain, and, after great hesitancy, it was decided to reduce the number of men participating to the minimum. Having formulated the scheme, volunteers were called for the service. But eight men were required. Two thousand offered themselves. Not only did American sailors show that they were ready at a moment's notice to answer any call, but they pleaded, begged and



THE CATHEDRAL OF HAVANA

The Cathedral of Havana, a masterpiece of post-Baroque religious architecture, so typically Cuban, stands in the lower part of the old city. It is many hundreds of years old, and has been the scene of state ceremonies in Havana during the entire period of Spanish dominion in that island.



HAVANA OF THE PAST. BARRACKS OF LA FUERZA, ERECTED 1573.

The lower part of the city of Havana offers numerous attractions to the student of antiquity, many of the buildings being contemporaneous in construction with the voyages of the earliest Spanish explorers, who sailed from the capital of Cuba to our shores.

importuned commanding officers to use their influence to secure the desperate but coveted detail. Those who were chosen considered themselves lucky. Those who were refused declined to be comforted, and openly averred that they were being treated badly and that the navy was no place for a man who wished to get ahead. Three men from the flagship New York swam from their ship to the Merrimac after being denied permission to enlist, were apprehended and returned to be punished because they violated a discipline which interfered with their wish to be numbered as part of a forlorn hope.

Hardly less remarkable than the act itself was the news that Hobson and his men escaped alive, a messenger from the Spanish admiral, under a truce flag, advising Admiral Sampson that every one of the eight was alive, well, and being treated as men who follow the profession of arms treat prisoners whose bravery they are compelled to admire. Hobson and his crew were eventually exchanged for Spanish prisoners held by the Americans, a truce having been established for that purpose.

The fighting qualities of the American soldier and his adaptability to new conditions were shown in the five days' fight between Lieutenant-Colonel Huntington's battalion of marines and the Spanish forces at Guantanamo. The marines **THE FIRST FORCE LANDED IN CUBA.** landed from the transport Panther on Friday, June 10, and on the following day a rush attack was made on them by Spanish troops. The Spaniards fought from cover until midnight, discoverable only by flashes from their guns, at which the marines fired volleys. Sunday brought no rest, and a moment of weakening or of panic would have resulted in the annihilation of the command. The arrival of re-enforcements of Cubans under Lieutenant Colonel Enrique Thomas on Monday brought a good supply of native guides, placing it within the power of the beleaguered corps to take the offensive. The battle upon the hills of Cusco the following day resulted, and the result was decisive victory for the allied Americans and Cubans.

The scene of the final engagement is reached by a long, tortuous footpath extending in a generally southern direction from the camp. A tangled brush of cactus, briars and thorny vines, impenetrable except

with the aid of a machete, and so dense that an object ten yards away cannot be distinguished, pushes in from either side, often hanging so low that it is possible to pass only by bending to the knees. For about three miles the trail doubles back and forth through this tangled skein of semi-tropical foliage, keeping to rocky gulches, but ascending gradually to the first ridge of the Cusco hills. The pass here is about 350 feet high, 200 feet above the summit of the hill upon which Camp McCalla stands. From this on the trail extends three miles farther south, between two ranges of lofty, bush-grown mountains 450 feet high, to the seashore, where once stood the Cusco plantation, which has given name and identity to this rough promontory.

The general plan of the battle was, in brief, a quick movement about the enemy's left flank, turning it and getting into a commanding position in the rear. The enemy had opened the attack upon our fortified camp at 8 o'clock in the morning of June 14, with an advance column comprising the 3d, or Principe, regiment of the Spanish infantry

**MARINES AND
CUBANS IN THE
BATTLE OF CUSCO.**

and one regiment of guerrillas, the Ecuadeas of Guantanamo. Coming down the main pass to support them were the 64th, or Sunancas, and the 35th, or Toledo, regiments of Spanish infantry. Two more regiments of Spanish regulars were on the way from Guantanamo overland, expecting to arrive in time to re-enforce the assault upon the camp. The Spanish were in full retreat before they arrived.

Lieutenant-Colonel Huntington had already strongly intrenched himself upon the hill, and, had his men been fresh, he might have safely stood upon the defensive against almost any force. But the fighting had already been going on for four days. Lack of sleep had weakened the nervous strength of the men, and indications were not wanting the night before to show that the marines were in no condition to do themselves justice in the trenches.

Under these circumstances the colonel decided wisely to put it on the offensive. Immediately after the attack was begun upon the front of the camp he detached Captain Elliott of Company C, a hardy old soldier and fighter, to turn the enemy's left wing. Leaving the camp under the bluffs of the shore at the western side, he marched his command at quick time along the narrow path skirting the shore seven

miles around the outer slope of the mountain in the enemy's left and rear. Captain Spicer of Company D followed, his objective being a point on the ridge on the left of Captain Elliott. Each was assisted by detachments of Cubans, fifty in all, who were to get around in the enemy's rear.

The plan of attack was almost completely successful. The enemy did not discover the flanking movement until Captain Elliott and his command were a mile on their way toward the mountain top. Then the race began for the lofty position—six miles through tangled brush and cactus, two opposing forces rushing at breakneck speed up opposite sides of the mountain, and victory the stake! It was a race to the death under a torrid sun that threatened the same penalty to victor or vanquished. Happily Captain Elliott, despite his 60 years, had the lead and won the position. He gained the summit of the mountain just as the enemy reached the top of a round knob in the center of the main pass at its base. The enemy immediately betrayed its inferior position by an irregular fire, and he answered with fierce volleys.

In the meantime Captain Spicer arrived just in time to receive the enemy's hottest fire as he appeared on the crest of the hill. It was the signal for the men to lie down and to augment Captain Elliott's regular volleys. Torrent upon torrent of burning hail swept the knob where the enemy paused. The marines, confident in their position, shot with no more excitement than if they were engaged in regular rifle practice, sometimes commenting and advising upon the range and the conditions of the shooting.

The enemy fought stubbornly from behind rocks and bushes, but resistance in the inferior position was useless. He began to retreat slowly up the gulch to the eastward. Just then a company of Cubans appeared in his rear, shouting curses and execrations upon Spanish oppressors, and, brandishing machetes, charged the fleeing column like a pack of savages. A second later Lieutenant Magill, with one platoon of Company A, appeared on the ridge over the gulch, having forced the enemy's front back over the first range of hills.

From this moment the enemy's retreat became a rout. He was caught upon three sides, and his only escape was up the steep sides of

the mountains at the head of the gulch. The slaughter here for a few minutes was frightful. Volley upon volley was hurled into the scattering ranks from Lieutenant Magill's command, scarcely 300 yards away, and the wonder is that any escaped. But, unfortunately, at just this instant, when the enemy was all but caught within a pocket lined with rifles, the Dolphin, stationed near the shore, began to fire straight into the gulch. She was in no position to get the right range, and all of her shells went wild, striking much nearer our own ranks than the enemy's.

In the face of this fire it was impossible to pursue the fleeing enemy. As he disappeared over the mountains many were caught on the run at long range and brought down like scurrying hares. But, once over the ridge, he was safe.

In the meantime the Cubans had driven out the last Spaniard from the old Cusco house and set it on fire. In the neighborhood they captured Lieutenant Francisco Batiste, a commander of guerrillas, two of his company and fifteen Spanish soldiers of the three regiments engaged. At a well fifty yards beyond the house the Spaniards attempted to make a stand, and a lieutenant and several soldiers were killed. Later an old windmill over the well was raked by shots from the Dolphin, and the well was filled up. By this means the supply of water upon which the enemy had relied in making his attacks upon the camp was cut off.

The extent of Spanish losses, as estimated by the Spanish and by Cuban scouts sent out immediately after the battle, is 68 killed and about 150 wounded. Our loss was but two killed, and these were Cubans who fell in their last intrepid charge for the Cusco house. Both received wounds in the breast and died shortly after help reached them, uttering with their last breath the dear words, "Cuba libre."

As soon as it was definitely known that the Spanish fleet was entrapped in Santiago bay, the work of transporting the troops to that section of the island was begun. The fleet of transports, with its guard of warships, left Egmont key, at the entrance of Tampa bay, just before sundown of Tuesday, June 14. The fleet stretched out on its course almost due south in three lines of ships, the battleship Indiana

leading the right line, the gunboat Castine the center and the gunboat Annapolis the left. Far to the right and left, at times so far from the main body as to be below the horizon, were the scout ships, which not only flanked the moving column of troopships, but steamed far ahead and followed behind the triple line of transports. On board were 16,000 fighting men, besides the men on the warships. The voyage to Cuban shores was uneventful, and on the morning of June 22 the first of the troops landed at Baiquiri, twelve miles east of the entrance to Santiago bay.

A FLEET OF
TROOPSHIPS
VOYAGE TO CUBA.

Before the boats started for shore with their loads of blue coats, half a dozen warships opened on the underbrush and hillsides with solid shot and shell. For twenty minutes the rapid-firing and machine guns beat the long roll, with the heavy ones coming in with booms and thumps like a great bass drum. The shells ripped through the trees, smashing the cliffs, uprooted great palms and tore up the earth with a vindictive vigor which delighted the soldiers, many of whom had never heard the roar of an eight-inch rifle before. This shelling was simply a precaution. The Cubans had sent word to the flagship that the Spaniards had left the town as soon as the first transport swung into view. Over 8,000 rounds of Mauser rifle ammunition were left behind; many official papers were found in the house that had been occupied by the Spanish commandant. The enemy left several souvenirs. To the soldier the most interesting were the rifle-pits, which ran in every direction, and the dozen little forts which dot the hills surrounding Baiquiri. When the tacticians of the 5th army corps came ashore and saw the natural defenses of the place they breathed hard for a minute, for they saw at once that a more energetic enemy could have held off the whole expedition, warships and all, with a comparatively small force.

But luck was with the Americans from the day the last transport left Tampa. The surf ran high, and it would have been ticklish business to have attempted to land a few men; it was real peril when it came to landing a boat crowded with heavily armed soldiers. Many boats were swamped. Yet only two men were drowned, and only one was injured seriously enough to get him a billet to the hospital

ship, the Olivette. When taps sounded that night scores of little camp fires showed that the invaders had pushed straight out into the hills, so that no Spaniard could creep up through the underbrush and pick off a northern man by shooting at him behind his back.

On June 24 eight troops of the "Rough Riders," four troops of the 1st cavalry and four troops of the 10th cavalry, less than 1,000 men in all, met 2,000 Spanish soldiers in the thickets five miles from Santiago, and a bloody battle ensued. The "Rough

**ROUGH RIDERS
HAVE THEIR BAPTISM OF FIRE.**

Riders" were given their first taste of war in Cuba, and showed the stuff of which they were made. They rushed into the dense thickets, regardless of danger; they crouched and fired, or rose and ran with a grim intentness of purpose that left nothing to be desired. There were many old soldiers among them, but one could not tell a veteran from a recruit. Those who were hit in many cases refused assistance rather than take their comrades out of the fight.

On the extreme right the 1st and 10th cavalry were executing their part of the contract to perfection. The Spanish position was originally formed in a double crescent and the regulars had driven the left wing back until it was well on the left of the valley road. There it was making a hard stand, knowing that unless the persistent Yankees were held in check the Spaniards would be hemmed in, with no avenue of escape. This negative success they achieved—no more. In a short time the final charge up the hill was made, with Roosevelt leading the left and Wood in the center, and the last remnant of the Spanish force fled before the impetuous assault.

After a week of comparative idleness the campaign was reopened on the night of June 30, when the regiments forming the three divisions marched to their positions through the darkness. Those who were held in the road by blockades of pack mules, wagon trains and artillery took to the sides of the road, where the men snatched a few minutes' sleep. It was a march that tested the endurance and tried the nerves of the officers and men. Late in the afternoon a heavy rain flooded the road-bed and turned the stiff clay to slippery, mushy mud, which clung to shoes, growing in bulk and weight at every step. Some of the regiments began moving before supper, and until morning their soldiers were

forced to quiet rebellious stomachs by nibbling hardtack. It was known that the road to the front was lined by Spanish sharpshooters, who roosted in trees at a safe distance, ready to slide to the ground and take cover in the underbrush. Canteens were emptied early in the march, the men taking the chance of an opportunity to refill them at the streams and small rivers which cross the road. But the leading regiments muddied the waters, and the cry, "Move to your positions as rapidly as possible," gave the thirsty men scant time to pick up a supply of water.

So it was that thousands of men stretched themselves flat on the ground, their clothing wet through with the tropical dew and their tongues so dry they were dusty. Scores of men in each regiment "fell out" on the march with reeling brains and throbbing temples, choked by the suffocating heat and humidity. Men threw their blanket rolls away, cast canned meats, hardtack and haversacks into the bushes, rid themselves of everything save the 100 rounds of ammunition, rifle, canteen and mess kit—the most precious belongings of the soldier. The Cubans reaped a full harvest, for they went foraging early and laid in clothing, blankets and provisions such as never before gladdened the eyes of the insurgents.

**BIVOUAC BEFORE
THE BATTLES OF
JULY 1 AND 2.**

The morning reveille on July 1 found almost the entire 5th army corps in assigned position. Capron's battery opened the ball against the blockhouse near El Caney, and at eight o'clock the first gun of Grimes' battery sent a shell toward San Juan. All this time the cavalry, infantry and Gatling gun battery were slowly making their way over sunken roads and obscure trails, through Spanish bayonet—the wickedest of vegetation—finally arranging themselves into an irregular crescent-shaped line, with wide breaks here and there, the bow of the crescent toward Santiago and each end almost touching a battery.

The Americans advanced by rushes from the first firing line and gave the Spaniards a distinct shock every time. Every rush meant a gain of from ten to fifty yards, and the only check to our advance during the day came when the 6th and 16th infantry and rough riders tried to carry Marianoje hill. After the first unsuccessful trial the Gatlings were brought forward, and, while our boys were rushing up

the slope, the Gatling guns swept the intrenchments, weakening the Spanish fire materially. The Spanish ran down the slope back to their rifle-pits when our men got close to them, and scores of them were shot in the back by our Krag-Jorgensens. Over sixty-five dead Spaniards were found in the rifle-pits and many wounded.

In the course of the fight General Wheeler, who was carried to the field on a litter, rode by, sitting erect on his bay horse. He was one of the few who did not deign to stoop to the flying shells or pay the least heed to the bullets that whistled thick about him. He seemed particularly in his element. At one time he called: "Keep at 'em! The Yankees are falling back." Then he corrected himself. "I mean the Spaniards," he said. But a great laugh went up and the good old general joined in it heartily.

When night fell the enemy had been driven back from the line of intrenched hills, El Caney and San Juan hill had been taken, and the last hostile gun on these advanced lines of the Spanish had been silenced. But the cost of the victory was terrible. Seventeen hundred and fifty-two of the brave boys in blue had been either killed or wounded.

On July 3 General Shafter sent the following communication to General Toral, the Spanish commander in the province of Santiago:

Headquarters of United States Forces, Near San Juan River, Cuba, July 3, 8:30 A. M.—To the Commanding General of the Spanish Forces, Santiago de Cuba—Sir: I shall
BOMBARDMENT be obliged, unless you surrender, to shell Santiago
OF SANTIAGO de Cuba. Please inform the citizens of foreign coun-
IS THREATENED. tries and all women and children that they should
 leave the city before 10 o'clock to-morrow morning. Very respectfully,
 your obedient servant,
 W. R. SHAFER,
 Major-General, U. S. A.

General Toral made this reply:

Santiago de Cuba, July 3, 2 P. M.—His Excellency, the General Commanding the Forces of the United States, San Juan River—Sir: I have the honor to reply to your communication of to-day, written at 8:30 A. M. and received at 1 P. M., demanding the surrender of this city; on the contrary case announcing to me that you will bombard the city, and asking that I advise the foreign women and children

that they must leave the city before 10 o'clock to-morrow morning. It is my duty to say to you that this city will not surrender and that I will inform the foreign Consuls and inhabitants of the contents of your message. Very respectfully,

JOSE TORAL,
Commander-in-Chief, Fourth Corps.

The British, Portuguese, Chinese, and Norwegian Consuls requested that non-combatants be allowed to occupy the town of Caney and railroad points, and asked until 10 o'clock of the next day for them to leave Santiago. They claimed that there were between 15,000 and 20,000 people, many of them old, whose lives would be endangered by the bombardment. On the receipt of this request General Shafter sent the following communication:

The Commanding General, Spanish General, Spanish Forces, Santiago de Cuba—Sir: In consideration of the request of the Consuls and officers in your city for delay in carrying out my intention to fire on the city, and in the interest of the poor women and children who will suffer greatly by their hasty and enforced departure from the city, I have the honor to announce that I will delay such action solely in their interest until noon of the 5th, providing during the interval your forces make no demonstration whatever upon those of my own.

I am with great respect, your obedient servant,

W. R. SHAFER, Major-General, U. S. A.

In order that General Toral might have time to consult with the Spanish authorities at Madrid, this truce was further extended until four o'clock on Saturday, July 9.

On the morning of July 3 occurred the event that hastened the conclusion of the war. On that day the *Maine* was remembered in the complete annihilation of the Spanish fleet at Santiago. Admiral Cervera and his officers were taken prisoners, 600 Spanish sailors were killed, 1,200 more surrendered and nearly \$15,000,000 worth of maritime property was destroyed. Our loss was one man killed on the flagship *Brooklyn*. The long, monotonous blockade off Santiago de Cuba ended in one of the greatest of naval achievements which history records. The unexpected happened when the enemy came out of the harbor. It was met by the expected—the valor, steadiness and wonderful gun fire of the men who wear the colors of Uncle Sam and fight

SCHLEY'S
GREAT VICTORY
OVER CERVERA.

his ships. The navy simply obeyed orders and the flag which knows no defeat floated proudly in the breeze on the evening of the great national holiday.

"Two bells" had gone when the New York, flagship of Admiral Sampson, signaled "pay no attention to the movements of the commander-in-chief," and, accompanied by the torpedo-boat *Eriesson*, steamed eastward toward Siboney, leaving the fleet in command of Commodore Schley. It was just 9:35 o'clock in the morning when the *Infanta Maria Teresa* cleared the harbor, fired her forward battery and started to the west. Our ships were bunched some distance to the west of the harbor entrance and the Sunday inspections were in progress as the land batteries opened. Almost instantly came the signal from the Brooklyn, "Clear ship for action," the buglers sang the thrilling call which sends brave men to quarters, where is gained ever-living fame or heroic death, and the fight was on.

Into the open sea, their big guns playing under the turtle-backed turrets, rushed the *Maria Teresa*, *Colon*, *Vizcaya* and *Oquendo*. Coming to meet them, slowly at first, but rapidly gaining speed, were the Brooklyn, Oregon, Iowa, Texas and Indiana. The converted yacht *Vixen* was ready for any emergency, and the Gloucester cleared for the fight.

Four great battleships began to hail a terrible tonnage of twelve and thirteen inch shells, the eight-inch ammunition of the Brooklyn shrieked, and wailed, and howled as it flew on its awful course of destruction, and the starboard side of Commodore Schley's flagship was a continuous line of flame.

As the great ships of the contestants raced away to the west, pounding at each other as ships have never pounded before, the sea churned into immense geysers as the projectiles plunged into the water, the sky darkened by smoke, the atmosphere heavy

WAINWRIGHT,
EXECUTIVE OFFICER OF THE MAINE. with saltpeter, out from the harbor steamed the torpedo-boats *Pluton* and *Furor*. The Gloucester alone was on guard. Her guns seemingly too heavy for her, the chances were favorable to the escape of the long, low black craft as they sped toward the yacht whose unprotected sides and decks appeared to make her easy prey.

It was 10:02 by the clock when Wainwright "rung up" and started

for his adversaries. Before his intention was understood by the enemy he was in between the boats, starboard and port broadsides playing furiously, while the Colt machine guns were swung so as to bring their continuous discharge of missiles upon the decks of the enemy. For ten minutes a running fight was kept up, during which time the Spaniards made half a dozen ineffectual attempts to torpedo the Gloucester. The shells from the land batteries fell all about, heavy, black and gray clouds of smoke hung low on the decks, spray covering everything as the projectiles exploded in the seas and sent up great columns of water on all sides. At 10:25 the enemy was silenced and had been driven on the rocks. At 10:35 one torpedo-boat exploded and sank, while the magazine of the other blew up at 11:02. In one hour Wainwright completed his work and furnished proof that his memory was good. He had remembered the Maine.

With the giants of the opposing squadrons the battle, though comparatively short, was furious throughout. Steaming to the west, Commodore Schley had seen to it that the Brooklyn's mark was indelibly stamped on every cruiser of Spain. The flagship alone had five-inch guns, and the scars of their projectiles on Spanish armor plates indicate how well they were aimed. Leaving the Oquendo and Maria Teresa to be handled by the battleships, he sent the Brooklyn speeding toward the Vizcaya. Closing in, the Brooklyn started half a dozen eight-inch shells toward the ship, which was rated her superior by some, following them with tons of metal from five and six inchers and one-pounders. Half a ton of steel a minute was hammered against the Vizcaya's sides, the Spanish gunners, unable to withstand the terrible fire, were driven from their pieces, and an evident attempt to ram the Brooklyn proved futile. The Oregon came on the scene early, adding to the punishment which proved to be so destructive that the Spanish colors were lowered shortly after 11 o'clock.

From the wrecked and helpless Vizcaya the Brooklyn sped on toward the Colon, which was making a desperate effort to escape down the coast. The chase was astern and the chances appeared to be in favor of the Spaniard. Skillful maneuvering, however, and the loyal, energetic work of the stokers enabled the flagship and the Oregon to overtake the enemy, which surrendered some sixty miles beyond the

starting point, at about the place where the never-to-be-forgotten *Virginius* tried to land its expedition.

While the Brooklyn and Oregon were pursuing the *Vizcaya* and *Colon*, "Fighting Bob" Evans and good "Jack" Philip were busy. The Iowa, Texas and Indiana, slower than the cruiser commanded by Cook or Clark's speedy battleship, devoted their attention to rounding up the *Oquendo* and *Maria Teresa*. Nine miles west of the harbor they

**SPLENDID WORK
OF SHIPS
AND SAILORS.**

encircled the flying cruisers. Outclassed from the start, the Spaniards fought like demons. Brave men were serving the guns, and, had their aim been as effective as their courage was sublime, some of our men might have missed their mess numbers and a ship or two charged to the price paid for liberty.

At 10:15 this particular part of the battle started in vigorous fashion, the enemy attempting to turn about and retreat to the harbor. The fighting was fierce until 10:40, when both ships of the enemy were set on fire by shells from our ships, driven ashore and wrecked. White flags were displayed ten minutes later. Spanish sailors from all the ships attempted to swim ashore, and some of them reached the land. The majority of the officers, including the Spanish Admiral Cervera, were taken prisoners, together with 1,200 sailors. Six hundred of the enemy were killed.

When the fight began the *New York* was bound eastward. She put about when ten miles away and returned to the scene, although not in time to participate in the battle. Admiral Sampson reached the Brooklyn just as Commodore Schley signaled that the victory had been won, and soon after sent a dispatch boat to Guantanamo to file the first official bulletin of the event.

General Nelson A. Miles arrived at the front on July 13, and by his presence added an effective force to the army around Santiago. Negotiations for the surrender of the city had been going on for several days, and on the 16th, after various conferences, terms were concluded.

The place chosen for the ceremony of surrender was a gentle slope a little way in front of the Spanish intrenchments and about 200 yards beyond our picket line, on the main thoroughfare leading eastward from Santiago and known as the *Sevilla* road. The cavalry was drawn up

in line extending to the left of the road, General Shafter and the escorting generals taking position at the right. Their horses were hardly brought to a stand before General Toral appeared at the head of a Spanish column on the road. The Spanish commander and his escort reined their horses opposite General Shafter, and a battalion of Spanish infantry, with buglers at their head, marched before him and on down the line of American cavalymen at quick-step to the music of the Spanish bugle salute. When at the end of the line they counter-marched, and our buglers chimed in with their salute. It was an odd medley of blaring notes, but extremely thrilling, that lasted until the Spanish were formed in line facing the cavalry. General Shafter rode forward a few paces and was met by General Toral. A few words of greeting, with the aid of an interpreter, and the aid holding the latter's sword was summoned to restore it to its owner. General Toral then presented his junior in command, General Escarol, and General Shafter presented in turn the generals of the corps. The bugle salutes were repeated and the Spanish column marched back to the city, General Toral and his staff following.

General Shafter's entrance to the city followed immediately, and he, with his escort, was welcomed to the palace by General Toral, where the local council and other civic officers were in waiting. It was now near 11 o'clock in the morning. The governor, seeking to do the honors properly, had prepared a luncheon for the general and his principal officers. Members of the staff put in the time strolling about the captured city. At 11:45 every one was at his station for the raising of the stars and stripes where no flag save Spain's had ever before floated. Rafferty's squadron of the 2d cavalry stood in a formidable line before the palace. On the broad flag walks bisecting the little square were marshaled all the commanding and staff officers in the order of their seniority, General Shafter standing at the front. Behind was the 6th cavalry band and two battalions of the 2d infantry in line in command of that tall, grizzled Indian fighter, General McKibben. Back of the square in the narrow street in front of the cathedral the remaining battalion of the 2d infantry was drawn up.

**SURRENDER OF
SANTIAGO BY
THE SPANISH.**

All stood at attention. The hands on the clock in the cathedral

tower indicated five minutes of 12. Lieutenant Miley, Lieutenant Wheeler and Captain McKittrick were at the base of the flagpole, Lieutenant Miley, tall and commanding, in the center, holding the halyards and ready to hoist at the first stroke of 12.

It was a moment of thrilling suspense which can never be forgotten by any one who witnessed the scene. Every window and portico at every side and corner of that little quadrangle was filled with dusky faces; the great stone steps leading up from either side to the wide portals of the cathedral were packed, and yet not a sound could be distinguished. It was the hush of awe, and the crouching Spaniard in the shade of the street corner must have felt instinctively that a great power was moving there before him. The clock struck. The flag jumped to the top of the mast above the legend "Vive Alfonso XIII."

"Present arms!" came from the throat of General McKibben.

There was a rattle of saber links and rifle locks. The opening strain of "The Star Spangled Banner" filled the air.

Every hat came off, and our handsome banner floated in the breeze, the world's token of a people's government. Then came the merry notes, "Rally Round the Flag, Boys," and the soldiers of America eased their full hearts with rousing cheers, repeated again and again.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE END OF THE WAR IN CUBA.

Spanish Government Forced to Sue for Peace—Preliminary Demands of the United States—Spain Yields to the Inevitable—Full Text of the Protocol—President McKinley Proclaims the Suspension of Hostilities—Blockade of Cuba and Puerto Rico Raised—Evacuation Commissioners and Peace Commissioners Appointed—The Treaty of Peace Agreed Upon—United States Senate Ratifies the Treaty—Losses of the War—War Investigation Commission and Its Report—Cuba Evacuated by the Spanish—United States Assumes Authority in the Island.

DRIVEN to sue for peace by its succession of disasters, without a single victory, great or small, to encourage its hopes, on Tuesday, July 26, the Spanish government took the first well-defined step to bring about a cessation of hostilities. The French ambassador, acting under instructions from his government, and at the request of the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs, called on President McKinley and announced that Spain was ready to consider terms. Nothing was said at this conversation suggesting what the terms might be, the proposition being confined to the one essential point of an earnest plea that negotiations be opened for the purpose of terminating the war.

After prolonged cabinet discussions regarding the concessions which should be demanded from Spain, Monsieur Cambon was notified that the President had formulated his ultimatum. The demands made by the President in brief were as follows:

1. That Spain will relinquish all claims of sovereignty over and title to Cuba.
2. That Puerto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies, and an island in the Ladrones, to be selected by the United States, shall be ceded to the latter.
3. That the United States will occupy and hold the city, bay and

**PRESIDENT
McKINLEY OFFERS
AN ULTIMATUM.**

harbor of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace, which shall determine the control, disposition and government of the Philippines.

4. That Cuba, Puerto Rico and other Spanish islands in the West Indies shall be immediately evacuated, and that commissioners, to be appointed within ten days, shall within thirty days from the signing of the protocol meet at Havana and San Juan, respectively, to arrange and execute the details of the evacuation.

5. That the United States and Spain will each appoint not more than five commissioners to negotiate and conclude a treaty of peace. The commissioners to meet at Paris not later than October 1.

6. On the signing of the protocol hostilities will be suspended, and notice to that effect will be given as soon as possible by each government to the commanders of its military and naval forces.

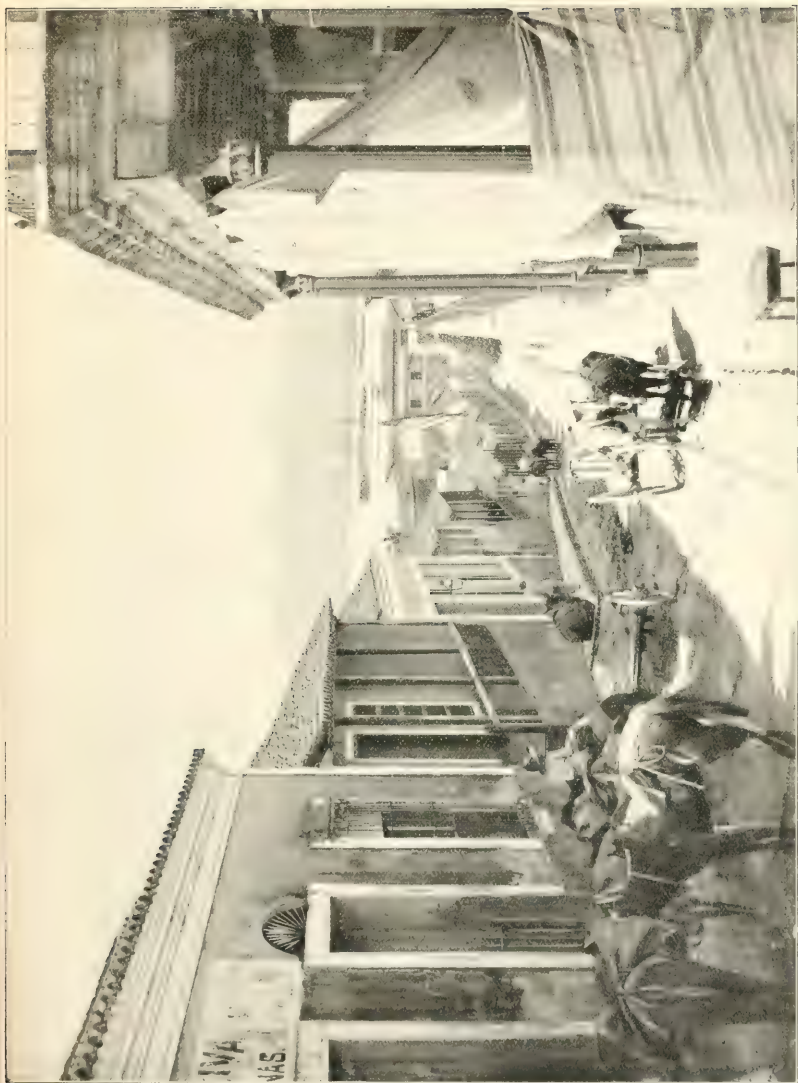
After an effort on the part of the Madrid diplomats to so modify the terms of these demands as to relieve the Spanish government of at least a portion of the Cuban debt, Ambassador Cambon received official notice from the administration at Madrid that he was authorized to sign the protocol. At 4 o'clock on the afternoon of August 12 he therefore visited the President's mansion, where signatures and seals were attached to the important document. The full text of the protocol was as follows:

His Excellency, M. Cambon, Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the French Republic at Washington, and Mr. William Day, Secretary of State of the United States, having received respectively to that effect plenary powers from the Spanish government and the government of the United States, have established and signed the following articles which define the terms on which the two governments have agreed with regard to the questions enumerated below and of which the object is the establishment of peace between the two countries—namely:

Article 1. Spain will renounce all claim to all sovereignty over and all her rights over the island of Cuba.

CESSION OF TERRITORY TO THE UNITED STATES. Article 2. Spain will cede to the United States the island of Puerto Rico and the other islands which are at present under the sovereignty of Spain in the Antilles, as well as an island in Ladrone archipelago, to be chosen by the United States.

Article 3. The United States will occupy and retain the city and bay of San Juan de Puerto Rico and the port of Manila and bay of Manila pending the conclusion of a treaty of peace which shall determine the control and form of government of the Philippines.



CATHEDRAL STREET, SANTIAGO DE CUBA, FROM THE MARKET PLACE

This picture, taken after the time of American occupation, shows American transports lying in the harbor and an American flag flying over one of the small houses. The characteristic red-tiled roofs of the city are shown clearly. In the background are the mountains of Cuba.



VIEW OF MATANZAS, CUBA, FROM THE ROAD TO THE CAVES

The city of Matanzas, with a population of about 60,000, is situated fifty miles east of Havana, with which it is connected by rail and water. Its shipping interests are second only to those of the capital, as it is the outlet of many of the richest agricultural districts of the island.

Article 4. Spain will immediately evacuate Cuba, Puerto Rico, and the other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the Antilles. To this effect each of the two governments will appoint commissioners within ten days after the signing of this protocol, and these commissioners shall meet at Havana within thirty days after the signing of this protocol with the object of coming to an agreement regarding the carrying out of the details of the aforesaid evacuation of Cuba and other adjacent Spanish islands; and each of the two governments shall likewise appoint within ten days after the signature of this protocol other commissioners, who shall meet at San Juan de Puerto Rico within thirty days after the signature of this protocol, to agree upon the details of the evacuation of Puerto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the Antilles.

Article 5. Spain and the United States shall appoint to treat for peace five commissioners at the most for either country. The commissioners shall meet in Paris on October 1 at the latest to proceed to negotiations and to the conclusion of a treaty of peace. This treaty shall be ratified in conformity with the constitutional laws of each of the two countries.

Article 6. Once this protocol is concluded and signed hostilities shall be suspended, and to that effect in the two countries orders shall be given by either government to the commanders of its land and sea forces as speedily as possible.

Done in duplicate at Washington, read in French and in English by the undersigned, who affix at the foot of the document their signatures and seals, August 12, 1898.

JULES CAMBON,
WILLIAM R. DAY.

The President immediately issued the following proclamation:

By the President of the United States of America—A Proclamation.

Whereas, By a protocol concluded and signed August 12, 1898, by William R. Day, Secretary of State of the United States, and His Excellency Jules Cambon, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of France at Washington, respectively representing for this purpose the government of the United States and the government of Spain, the United States and Spain have formally agreed upon the terms on which negotiations for the establishment of peace between the two countries shall be undertaken; and

Whereas, It is in said protocol agreed that upon its conclusion and signature hostilities between the two countries shall be suspended, and that notice to that effect shall be given as soon as possible by each government to the commanders of its military and naval forces:

PRESIDENT
ORDERS HOSTILITIES TO CEASE.

Now, therefore, I, William McKinley, President of the United

States, do, in accordance with the stipulations of the protocol, declare and proclaim on the part of the United States a suspension of hostilities, and do hereby command that orders be immediately given through the proper channels to the commanders of the military and naval forces of the United States to abstain from all acts inconsistent with this proclamation.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this 12th day of August, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight, and of the independence of the United States the one hundred and twenty-third.

WILLIAM McKINLEY.

By the President:

WILLIAM R. DAY,

Secretary of State.

In accordance with the proclamation issued by the President, the blockade of Cuba and Puerto Rico was raised at once, and preparations for the restoration of normal conditions in those islands began. Four days after the signature of the protocol the President appointed as evacuation commissioners for Cuba, Major-General James F. Wade, Rear-Admiral William P. Sampson and Major-General Matthew C. Butler, and for Puerto Rico, Major-General John R. Brooke, Rear-Admiral Winfield S. Schley and Brigadier-General William W. Gordon. As commissioners to negotiate the treaty of peace in Paris, according to the stipulations of the protocol, President McKinley appointed Secretary of State William R. Day, United States Senator Cushman K. Davis of Minnesota, United States Senator William P. Frye of Maine, United States Senator George Gray of Delaware and Whitelaw Reid of New York, former United States Minister to France. The

**NAMES OF SPANISH
AND AMERICAN
COMMISSIONERS.**

Spanish commissioners appointed to meet them in negotiations were Excmo. Senor Don Eugenio Montero Rios, Excmo. Senor Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Excmo. Senor Don Jose de Garnica, Excmo. Senor Don Wenceslao Ramirez de Villa Urrutia and Excmo. Senor General Rafael Cerrero.

On the 10th day of December, after several weeks of diplomatic controversy between the Spanish and the American commissioners, the treaty was finally formulated in full and signed by all the members of both commissions. Less than two months later it was ratified

without alteration by the United States Senate. The treaty in full is as follows:

The United States of America and Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII, desiring to end the state of war now existing between the two countries, have for that purpose appointed as plenipotentiaries:

The President of the United States, William R. Day, Cushman K. Davis, William P. Frye, George Gray and Whitelaw Reid, citizens of the United States.

And Her Majesty, the Queen Regent of Spain, Don Eugenio Montero Rios, president of the Senate; Don Buenaventura de Abarzuza, Senator of the kingdom and ex-minister of the crown; Don Jose de Garnica, deputy to the Cortes and associate justice of the Supreme Court; Don Wenceslao Ramirez de Villa Urrutia, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at Brussels, and Don Rafael Cerrero, general of division;

Who, having assembled in Paris and having exchanged their full powers, which were found to be in due and proper form, have, after discussion of the matters before them, agreed upon the following articles:

Article 1. Spain relinquishes all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba. And as the island is, upon its evacuation by Spain, to be occupied by the United States, the United States will, so long as such occupation shall last, assume and discharge the obligations that may, under international law, result from the fact of its occupation, for the protection of life and property.

Article 2. Spain cedes to the United States the island of Puerto Rico and other islands now under Spanish sovereignty in the West Indies and the island of Guam in the Marianas, or Ladrões.

Article 3. Spain cedes to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippine islands, and comprehending the islands lying within the following line: A line running from west to east along or near the twentieth parallel of north latitude and through the middle of the navigable channel of Bachi, from the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) to the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence along the one hundred and twenty-seventh (127th degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes (4:45) north latitude, thence along the parallel of four degrees and forty-five minutes (4:45) north latitude to its intersection with the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes (119:35) east of Greenwich, thence along the meridian of longitude one hundred and nineteen degrees and thirty-five minutes (119:35) east of Greenwich to the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes (7:40) north,

**TREATY LIMITS
OF THE
PHILIPPINES.**

thence along the parallel of latitude seven degrees and forty minutes (7:40) north to its intersection with the one hundred and sixteenth (116th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, thence by a direct line to the intersection of the tenth (10th) degree parallel of north latitude with the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich, and thence along the one hundred and eighteenth (118th) degree meridian of longitude east of Greenwich to the point of beginning.

The United States will pay to Spain the sum of twenty million dollars (\$20,000,000) within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty.

Article 4. The United States will, for the term of ten years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the ports of the Philippine islands on the same terms as ships and merchandise of the United States.

Article 5. The United States will, upon the signature of the present treaty, send back to Spain, at its own cost, the Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war on the capture of Manila by the American forces. The arms of the soldiers in question shall be restored to them.

Spain will, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present treaty, proceed to evacuate the Philippines, as well as the island of Guam, on terms similar to those agreed upon by the commissioners appointed to arrange for the evacuation of Puerto Rico and other islands in the West Indies under the protocol of August 12, 1898, which is to continue in force till its provisions are completely executed. The time within which the evacuation of the Philippine islands and Guam shall be completed shall be fixed by the two governments. Stands of colors, unaptured war vessels, small arms, guns of all calibers, with their carriages and accessories, powder, ammunition, live stock and materials and supplies of all kinds, belonging to the land and naval forces of Spain in the Philippines and Guam, remain the property of Spain.

PROPERTY Pieces of heavy ordnance, exclusive of field artillery, **TRANSFERRED BY** in the fortifications and coast defenses, shall remain **THE TREATY.** in their emplacements for the term of six months, to be reckoned from the exchange of ratifications of the treaty; and the United States may, in the meantime, purchase such material from Spain, if a satisfactory agreement between the two governments on the subject shall be reached.

Article 6. Spain will, upon the signature of the present treaty, release all prisoners of war and all persons detained or imprisoned for political offenses, in connection with the insurrections in Cuba and the Philippines and the war with the United States.

Reciprocally, the United States will release all persons made prisoners of war by the American forces and will undertake to obtain the release of all Spanish prisoners in the hands of the insurgents in Cuba and the Philippines.

The government of the United States will, at its own cost, return to Spain, and the government of Spain will, at its own cost, return to the United States, Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines, according to the situation of their respective homes, prisoners released or caused to be released by them, respectively, under this article.

Article 7. The United States and Spain mutually relinquish all claims for indemnity, national and individual, of every kind, of either government, or of its citizens or subjects, against the other government that may have arisen since the beginning of the late insurrection in Cuba and prior to the exchange of ratifications of the present treaty, including all claims for indemnity for the cost of the war. The United States will adjudicate and settle the claims of its citizens against Spain relinquished in this article.

Article 8. In conformity with the provisions of Articles 1, 2 and 3 of this treaty, Spain relinquishes in Cuba, and cedes in Puerto Rico and other islands in the West Indies, in the island of Guam and in the Philippine archipelago, all the buildings, wharves, barracks, forts, structures, public highways and other immovable property which, in conformity with law, belong to the public domain and as such belong to the crown of Spain.

And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, ecclesiastical or civic bodies or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be.

**PROPERTY
OF CHURCH AND
CIVIC BODIES.**

The aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, includes all documents exclusively referring to the sovereignty relinquished or ceded that may exist in the archives of the peninsula. Where any document in such archives only in part relates to said sovereignty a copy of such part will be furnished whenever it shall be requested. Like rules shall be reciprocally observed in favor of Spain in respect of documents in the archives of the islands above referred to.

In the aforesaid relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, are also included such rights as the crown of Spain and its authorities possess in respect of the official archives and records, executive as well as judicial, in the islands above referred to, which relate to said islands or the rights and property of their inhabitants. Such archives and records shall be carefully preserved and private persons shall without distinction have the right to require, in accordance with law, authenticated copies of the contracts, wills and other instruments forming part of notarial protocols or files, or which may be contained in the executive or judicial archives, be the latter in Spain or in the islands aforesaid.

Article 9. Spanish subjects, natives of the peninsula, residing in the territory over which Spain by the present treaty relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty, may remain in such territory or may remove therefrom, retaining in either event all their rights of property, including the right to sell or dispose of such property or of its proceeds, and they shall also have the right to carry on their industry, commerce and professions, being subject in respect thereof to such laws as are applicable to other foreigners. In case they remain in the territory they may preserve their allegiance to the crown of Spain by making, before a court of record, within a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty, a declaration of their decision to preserve such allegiance; in default of which declaration they shall be held to have renounced it and to have adopted the nationality of the territory in which they may reside.

The civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories herein ceded to the United States shall be determined by the congress.

Article 10. The inhabitants of the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be secured in the free exercise of their religion.

Article 11. The Spaniards residing in the territories over which Spain by this treaty cedes or relinquishes her sovereignty shall be subject, in matters civil as well as criminal, to the jurisdiction of the courts of the country wherein they reside, pursuant to the ordinary laws governing the same, and they shall have the right to appear before such courts and to pursue the same course as citizens of the country to which the courts belong.

Article 12. Judicial proceedings pending at the time of the exchange of ratifications of this treaty in the territories over which Spain relinquishes or cedes her sovereignty shall be determined according to the following rules:

1. Judgments rendered either in civil suits between private individuals or in criminal matters before the date mentioned and with respect to which there is no recourse or right of review under the Spanish law shall be deemed to be final and shall be executed in due form by competent authorities in the territory within which such judgments should be carried out.

2. Civil suits between private individuals which may on the date mentioned be undetermined shall be prosecuted to judgment before the court in which they may then be pending, or in the court that may be substituted therefor.

3. Criminal actions pending on the date mentioned before the supreme court of Spain against citizens of the territory which by this treaty ceases to be Spanish shall continue under its jurisdiction until final judgment; but such judgment having been rendered, the execution

thereof shall be committed to the competent authority of the place in which the case arose.

Article 13. The rights of property secured by copyrights and patents acquired by Spaniards in the Island of Cuba and Puerto Rico, the Philippines and other ceded territories at the time of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty shall continue to be respected. Spanish scientific, literary and artistic works not subversive to public order in the territories in question shall continue to be admitted free of duty into such territories for the period of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

Article 14. Spain will have the power to establish consular offices in the ports and places of the territories the sovereignty over which has been either relinquished or ceded by the present treaty.

Article 15. The government of each country will, for the term of ten years, accord to the merchant vessels of the other country the same treatment in respect of all port charges, including entrance and clearance dues, light dues and tonnage duties as it accords to its own merchant vessels not engaged in the coastwise trade.

This article may at any time be terminated on six months' notice given by either government to the other.

Article 16. It is understood that any obligations assumed in this treaty by the United States with respect to Cuba are limited to the time of its occupancy thereof, but it will, upon the termination of such occupancy, advise any government established in the island to assume the same obligations.

**TRADE AND
COMMERCIAL
STIPULATIONS.**

Article 17. The present treaty shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof, and by Her Majesty the Queen of Spain, and the ratification shall be exchanged at Washington within six months from the date thereof, or earlier, if possible.

In faith whereof, we, the respective plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Paris, the 10th day of December, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight.

WILLIAM R. DAY.
CUSHMAN K. DAVIS.
WILLIAM P. FRYE.
GEORGE GRAY.
WHITELAW REID.
EUGENIO MONTERO RIOS.
B. DE ABARZUZA.
J. DE GARNICA.
W. R. DE VILLA URRUTIA.
RAFAEL CERRERO.

In the annual message of President McKinley, submitted to Congress at the opening of the session in December, 1898, he recapitulates the losses to American arms during the war. The total casualties of the army was as follows: Officers killed, 23; enlisted men killed, 257; total, 280. Officers wounded, 113; enlisted men wounded, 1,464; total, 1,577. Of the navy: Killed, 17; wounded, 67; died as a result of wounds, 1; invalided from service, 6; total, 91. In the entire campaign by land and sea, we did not lose a gun, or a flag, or a transport, or a ship except the Merrimac, sunk by our own choice and by our own men; and with the exception of the crew of the Merrimac, not a soldier or a sailor was taken prisoner.

The foregoing statement of casualties makes no mention of deaths resulting from sickness in the army, a matter on which the statistics never can be complete until ample time has elapsed to trace the health conditions of the men who have come home from the war. It is possible to say here only that the deaths in Cuba from typhoid, yellow fever and malarial fevers reached a very large number in the army, and that in Puerto Rico typhoid and malarial fevers claimed many victims.

**BLAME FOR THE
SUFFERING OF
THE ARMY.**

Hundreds of others underwent illness which did not end in death, but left the men weakened in constitution. The preparations made by the War Department authorities for medical and surgical attendance in the hospitals and for feeding the army were so shockingly inadequate and inefficient that the country justly holds that service to blame for the enormous amount of unnecessary and superfluous suffering.

Early in the fall a commission of inquiry was appointed by the President, in response to the national clamor that an investigation be made as to the management of the war. There was a universal feeling that the responsibility for the culpable mismanagement of many essentials should be fixed, and the guilty punished. The commission traveled all about the country, holding sessions and hearing testimony. For some reason it failed to establish itself very firmly in the public confidence, and the feeling existed that a congressional investigation would be required before satisfactory judgment would be pronounced on General Shafter's management of the Santiago campaign. The Presidential commission left an impression wherever it traveled that

it was made up of attorneys for the defense instead of those taking a judicial position and seeking for the truth, let it blame whom it might.

When finally the commission made its report, it was found that mild rebukes were distributed right and left with considerable freedom, but that the blame was not centered in such a way that any punishment could be visited upon the guilty. It is sufficient to say here that popular judgment did not agree with the commissioners as to the culpability for the unnecessary suffering that had been undergone by our army and that the opinions of most people were very well defined.

As the end of the year drew nigh and the time of transfer from Spanish to American rule in Cuba approached, conditions in Havana became more and more unsettled. Several American men-of-war were ordered to the city in order that their marines and jack-tars would be on hand to preserve peace in the event of an eruption between the departing Spanish soldiers and the exultant Cubans. Finally, however, on the 1st day of January, 1899, the Spanish yoke was lifted from Cuba and the Americans assumed full control. Havana was the scene of the most significant events of the transfer of sovereignty. In the thunder of a hundred guns the red and gold standard of Spain dropped from the flagstaff at noon and Captain-General Castellanos, the last viceroy of Cuba, surrendered the island and all it contained to General Wade and General Butler of the American evacuation commission. Cuba was freed from the Spanish yoke.

SPANISH SOVEREIGNTY IN CUBA ENDED.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

REMINISCENCES OF THE CUBAN WAR.

Value of Personal Reminiscences of the War—A Soldier's Diary of the Campaign Before Santiago—Disembarkation at Baiquiri—Rainy Weather in Camp—A Day of Awful Fighting—The Surrender of the Spanish—A Guard in the Yellow Fever Camp—Arrival of American Troops at Havana—In Camp Near the Cuban Metropolis—Christmas Festivities—A Journey from Havana to Cienfuegos.

AS A preliminary to a series of personal impressions and recollections of the soldiers and sailors who served in the Cuban campaign, it is necessary to say that one thing must be remembered always in reading such wherever they are printed. Though invariably interesting, they are not always accurate. This comes from no fault of the men who tell the stories, but from the peculiarity of the conditions. The soldier serving where his regiment is stationed, or the sailor on a single ship, has but a limited point of view. What he tells of the progress of a battle may be perfectly correct as far as it applies to an incident passing under his own notice, but utterly misleading in relation to a general engagement. His perspective is at fault.

Again the same man's judgment on personal characteristics of natives, or their manners of life and their merits as soldiers, may be based on exceedingly limited opportunity for observation. These facts do not impair the entertaining interest of such recollections, but they are to be kept in mind when one is seeking for definite sources of information on actual conditions in foreign lands.

The selection of personal reminiscences which follows has been made from letters and newspaper interviews in order to give an idea of the service afloat and ashore in the Cuban campaign as judged by the men who did the work of destroying Spanish power in the island.

They were brave men, fighting for their country, doing whatever duty came to hand and making a name for the United States such as it had not before among the other nations of the world. All honor to the men of the army and navy. One of the most interesting personal accounts of service in the campaign before Santiago is that taken from an officer's diary and extending from the day of disembarkation at Baiquiri to the surrender of the Spanish forces. It is so characteristic of the service that many men saw that I give it in full herewith.

ALL HONOR DUE
TO THE MEN
WHO FIGHT.

"June 24—Began disembarking the regiment at Baiquiri, Cuba, early this morning, and before noon the entire command was on shore. We brought our shelter tents and three days' rations, and to-night we are bivouacked along the road leading eastward to Siboney. To have escaped alive from that transport seems to me like a release from prison. The day's labor of bringing off the men in small boats has been immense, and I am nearly exhausted. Still I am delighted to set foot again on land. To have been cooped up for two weeks on a transport in this climate is nothing less than torture. If we had been able to sleep in our staterooms we might not have had so great cause for complaint. But they were mostly below decks, and we were lucky to find a dry place on the hard upper deck where we could lie down in our blankets. The men have had to sleep in bunks three tiers deep.

"June 25—Marched with the regiment to Siboney, a hard tramp, over a rough road. We are encamped to-night on the side of the hill above the town. It is a filthy spot; but the water is good. Siboney is only a group of single-story frame houses, but it is the terminal of the Juragua railroad, that brings ore from Juragua, five miles in the interior. There is a roundhouse and one or two machine shops and lumber mills. I hear that Wheeler's division has had a lively skirmish up the road and drove the enemy back.

"June 26—Marched twelve miles over a bad trail from Siboney. Suffered intensely from the heat. Regiment halted repeatedly, but arrived here in bad condition. Rations low and no more in sight. Have eaten the last of my bacon and had to borrow a hardtack from the sergeant. Regret I was not with Wheeler. Rough riders seem to have been hard hit. Poor Capron! Too bad he fell so soon.

"June 28—Two days encamped in this place. All last night was on outpost duty, and approached very near to enemy's outposts on the range of high hills running parallel to the valley through which we are marching. Came back soaked to the skin; but I was able to take none of my baggage off the transport, and will have to wear these wet clothes

**DISCOMFORTS OF
LIFE IN A
WET CAMP.**

until they are dry. It was a hard night's duty. After stationing two and three men together at intervals in the manner of Cossack pickets I had to visit them from time to time. Could not get through the brush without a great noise, except by crawling, and my legs and face and hands to-day are raw with scratches. Thicket almost impenetrable in the day-time. Repeatedly caught glimpses of enemy, but did not rouse them; only observed their movements.

"June 29—Soaked again. Camp is like a mud-puddle. Some of the men have built cots out of bamboo poles to keep them off the wet ground. I awoke this morning to find myself surrounded by water, my blanket wet and not a dry spot in sight. This afternoon the sun shone for a few minutes; but the rising vapor made us only more wretched. Got a ration of white beans to-day, and had one good meal. 'Don't eat mangoes, either raw or stewed,' is the advice of a man who has experimented and feels the consequences.

"June 30—There's trouble ahead to-morrow. Broke camp suddenly this afternoon, and have been marching forward along the main trail leading to Santiago ever since, and it's midnight now. Am told that the enemy's outposts are only a few hundred yards ahead of us, at El Poso, though I believe they will not make a stand there, and we shall easily drive them into the city. A more difficult march I have never heard of. We were told to come along the main trail, and ever since we started we have been jammed first on one flank and then on the other by regiments pushing into the trail and trying to advance at the same time. Road muddy and confusion frightful. Snatched a few minutes to write this, because can't tell what may happen to-morrow. We rest here, getting what sleep we can on the bare ground, for two hours. At 3 o'clock we take up our advance, expecting to engage the enemy at day-break.

"July 1—A day of awful fighting. I write this while I watch a

detail of men throw up intrenchments on the hill we took this afternoon, though we are more than decimated. I am the only commissioned officer left in my company—think of it; but three weeks away from the Point, and I have a company! Occasional shots come from enemy's lines. I can just make them out in the moonlight—a thin, yellow line along a low ridge between us and the outskirts of Santiago. We have been victorious, but at a frightful cost; and after marching since early morning, lying for two hours in a creek up to our waists and charging at double time up this hill we have nothing to eat. General Kent has just sent over to borrow two hardtacks of Captain ———. Really I don't see how we are to get rations up here. The road as far back as I have seen it is knee-deep with mud.

**THE BATTLE OF
SAN JUAN,
AND AFTER.**

"July 3—All right again, though it was near enough. Early Saturday morning I was standing behind the trenches when a shot passed across the small of my back. It grazed my backbone and knocked me down. I was taken back to the hospital, but only a very little treatment was necessary. I rested yesterday and walked back to rejoin command this afternoon. I am becoming horribly tired and feel weak, but otherwise I am well. Rations are still short. I understand sharpshooters are keeping back our pack-train. Cervera's fleet left the harbor yesterday, and, I understand, it was smashed. The enemy attacked the lines to the right of us last night, but only two men were hit.

"July 4—There is some prospect of sleep to-night, for the first time since Friday, when we took this hill. To-day Shafter sent in a demand for the surrender of the city under a flag of truce and the answer will be made to-morrow. Got a can of tomatoes and some tobacco from the commissary to-day. We are all still on short rations of bacon, hardtack and coffee. Haven't seen sugar for a week.

"July 5—Went down to headquarters, which is located near where we camped a week ago, and brought up some rations. Enemy's sharpshooters pay no heed to truce or the red cross. As I crossed a creek saw one of them in our uniform lying on branch of tree over road. He was trying to get a shot at soldiers who were filling their canteens and didn't see me. I picked him off with my revolver. Was shot at several times on the way back. Now the safest place is on the firing line.

"Lieutenant ——— of the Ninth tells me our sharpshooters have not been idle. He says one of his sergeants picked the Spanish General Linares off a white horse yesterday at 1,200 yards.

"July 6—Toral, the Spanish general who succeeded Linares, seems to want fight. They say his answer to Shafter was a sharp refusal to surrender, and a reminder that the fever and climate might soon weaken us. There has not been much sickness thus far, and yet after what we have been through since landing in Cuba there are plenty of men who look as if a very little more would lay them out.

"July 7—The rain has found us again. Trenches are full of water, but we have to stay in them, though we are soaked to the skin. The army poncho is a fraud. A good shower wets it through within fifteen minutes. Last night the worst electrical storm I ever witnessed struck us. Lightning played about the summit of the hill here for hours. It was worse than being under fire. In fact, my sensations under fire amount to nothing, except when a battery is around. I can't help dodging every time a field piece is discharged.

"July 8—Still it rains. I haven't had a change of underclothing for two weeks, and I see no prospect of getting these I have on washed.

**DRENCHED BY
THE DOWNPOUR
OF RAIN.**

The sun shines only a half-hour in the morning, and I have nothing to wear while these are drying. We are getting rations slowly now. But this truce is becoming tiresome. I hear the enemy offers to evacuate if they can march out with their arms and the honors of war. The whole army raves at the proposal, but it has been referred to Washington.

"July 9—Still it rains. Had a touch of malaria last night, but was given some quinine and feel better. I believe the truce will end tomorrow.

"July 10—Bombardment of Santiago began at 4:30 this afternoon. Enemy replied at first with spirit, but several of their batteries were soon silenced. Two modern guns to the right of us caused no end of trouble until our guns found the range. We shortly shut them up. Enemy's rifle fire was also heavy. But it was cloudy when the firing began, and shortly darkness came on and put a stop to the fighting. The enemy is quiet, but a movement at any time would not surprise me. I will get no sleep to-night, for I am on guard.

"July 11—The enemy is either disheartened or is lying low for another assault. They have scarcely replied to-day to our artillery fire. It is really too bad we have not brought up the rest of General Randolph's light artillery and the siege guns. It will cost many lives to get the Spanish out of their intrenchments, and then to compel them to surrender in the city. I have seen from our hill the barricades they have made at the heads of the streets, and the stone houses of Santiago can all be converted into forts or block-houses.

"Praise the Lord, I got a can of soup to-day, and Lieutenant —— gave me a pair of dry socks. It has been a lucky day.

"July 12—They say the enemy is giving in. I think he will surrender. Saw General Miles to-day. His fine appearance cheered us up immensely.

"July 13—Toral has given it up. I understand it is all settled, except to decide upon the manner of evacuating the city. I never heard a more welcome piece of news. The truth is, I was afraid Toral might be right, and the fever would get us here. Several of my men have gone to the rear with malaria, and two of them are in the yellow-fever camp at Siboney. The constant labor and lack of sleep and food begins to tell on me. That malaria comes back occasionally. I am afraid of it."

The reader may take an interest in the knowledge that the owner of the diary was taken down with malarial fever, but recovered and came north with his regiment.

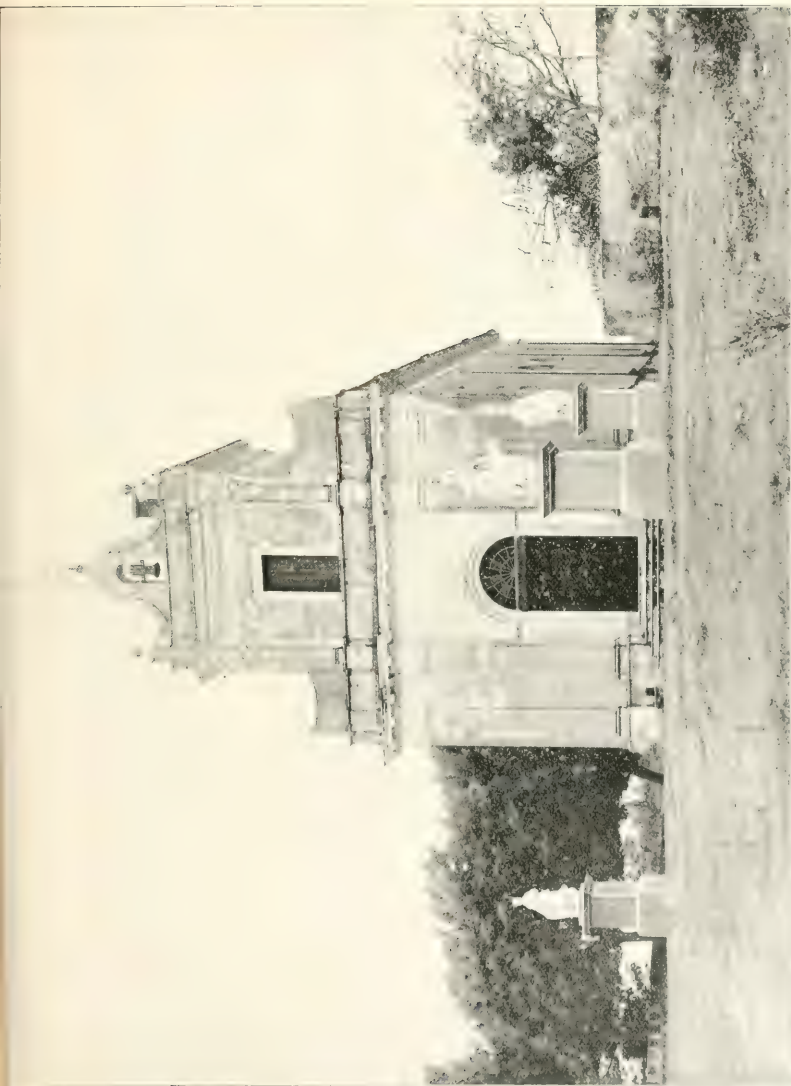
Acting Sergeant Anthony Link of the First Illinois Infantry tells a peculiarly dramatic tale of the scenes he witnessed in camp, in the hospitals and on the transport which brought him north. His story follows herewith:

"The First Illinois entered the trenches encircling Santiago July 10. For seven days we lay in the mud and water knee deep. Our food was bad. For dinner a piece of bacon would be thrown to each man, and what little coffee was at hand we crushed with our bayonets. At night we could crawl out of the pits and obtain a reprieve from our laborious position, as the enemy could not see to pick us off. Our hardtack wasn't always of the best and in a short time our fellows were in an enfeebled condition.

**HARD SERVICE
BEFORE THE
SPANISH LINES.**

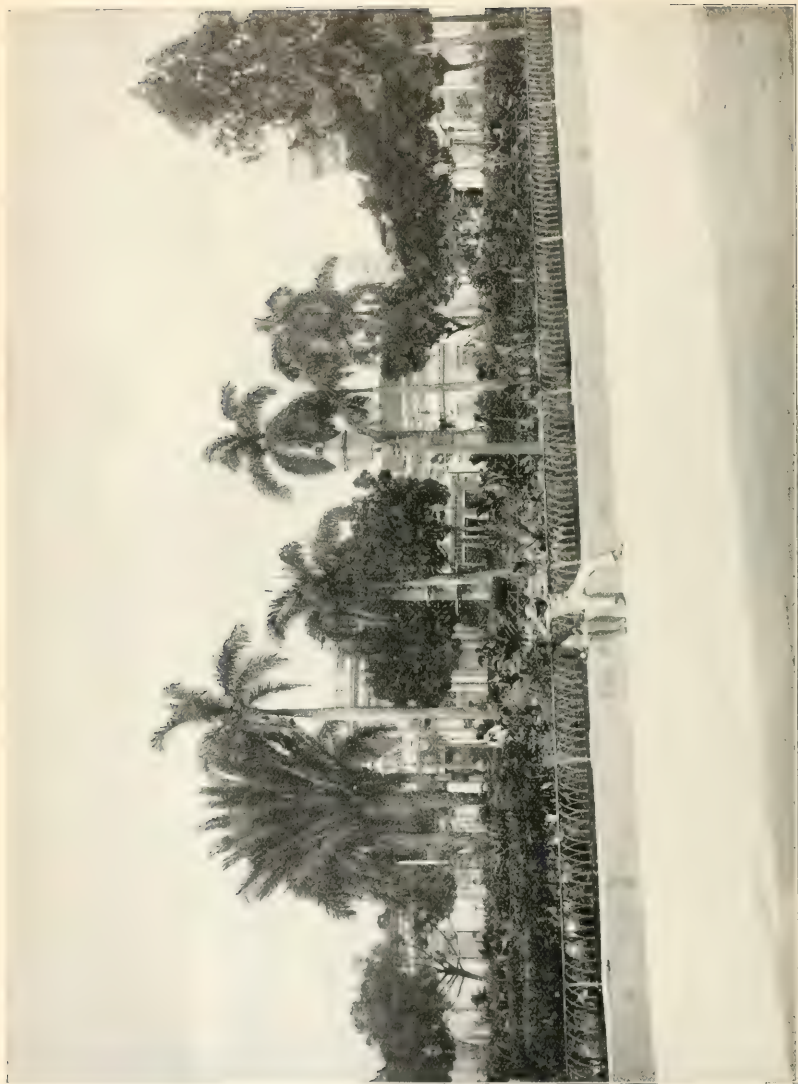
"At the end of the fourth day nineteen men from each company of our regiment were chosen to form a detachment to guard the yellow-fever pesthouse, thirteen miles to the rear, near Siboney. Many of the non-commissioned officers refused point blank to go, fearing the fever worse than Spanish bullets. I was then detailed as acting sergeant. With 198 boys from the First and four commissioned officers we took charge of the pesthouse. As the trains rolled in we would take the fever patients on our shoulders and carry them into the camp. Deaths were so frequent that we always dug seven graves in advance. For a week our detachment got along all right. Then seventeen were taken down in one day, fifteen the next, twenty-five the next, and so on in that proportion till the commissioned officers and men were either dead or removed save five of us. As we had no superior to consult we gathered up the camp things not infected and moved away several miles. Out of that detachment of 198 forty-nine died, and the greater number of survivors will never be fit for anything in this life. I didn't get sick at the time; a good constitution and kind fortune enabled me to escape. I wanted to join my regiment, but being under quarantine was unable.

"Next I entered the hospital at Siboney, being made hospital steward on account of my previous knowledge as a pharmacist. It was decided to send a lot of convalescents to New York. We were piled in open cars and sent around by way of Aguadores to Santiago. By some awful blunder the train was side-tracked and for six hours we lay in a blazing sun. A Cuban, seeing our extremity, procured water, into which he squeezed some limes, and sold the precious fluid at 5 cents a dipper. Another Cuban had little loaves of bread which he offered at 5 cents apiece, but perceiving how hungry the boys were quickly raised the price to 10 cents. One soldier, delirious from fatigue, hunger and the torrid heat, offered his only nickel for a loaf. The avaricious Cuban refused him. With the strength of despair he struck the Cuban in the stomach and grasped the basket. The other soldiers pounced on the bread and devoured it like famished wolves. I never believed men could be so mastered by hunger. Many of the convalescents became delirious and their agony under that scorching sun was awful. Finally, after we had suffered the tortures of the damned, the mistake was discovered, the engine came back and we were pulled to within a mile of Santiago.



CHURCH OF MONSERRATE, MATANZAS, CUBA

The Church of Monserrate, Matanzas, Cuba, is highly interesting for the statuary around it and the peculiar old bell in its belfry. It is of massive masonry, and built to stand for many years.



THE PLAZA, OR PUBLIC SQUARE OF MATANZAS, CUBA

In the new lands which have come under our influence, we will find a form of vegetation altogether novel to the north. Royal palms, palmettos and luxuriant shrubbery stand in place of the elms and maples. It is this that makes life in the tropics novel to our eyes.

where we were taken on board the *Catania* of New York. The exposure on the train had made half the enfeebled invalids violently ill.

"We boarded the *Catania* August 15 and lay there two days. Just two hours before we sailed my chum, Ralph W. Lahman, died. His remains were taken ashore in a rowboat and laid to rest in Santiago. But for that awful exposure he might be alive now. The *Catania* was a rotten old tub. Again I was appointed hospital steward, and saw to the full measure the horrors that ensued on the voyage. Going through the Windward passage the choppy sea shook the old boat so that frequently waves would leap over the sides and wash the weak men off their cots and dash them against the iron-sheathed sides. This was terrible.

"In two days half the men were either dazed or demented. One man in his frenzy leaped overboard. We kept seven fellows strapped constantly to prevent them from doing likewise. Upon another occasion a delirious patient opened a port-hole, allowing a heavy wave to enter, nearly filling up the middle deck. It swept over the fever-stricken men, carrying away cots and presenting a sight piteous to behold. Such suffering! I slept in a hammock. It took us thirteen days to make the passage and nine men died on the way. For three days and nights the *Catania's* coal-bunkers were on fire. This added to the general horror.

**SUFFERINGS OF
THE NORTHWARD
VOYAGE.**

"When Montauk Point was reached the weakest were taken off at once, but the stronger convalescents were kept on board two days longer. We were fed well at Montauk Point, but for the most part the kind care and treatment came too late. Coming back to Chicago we were given grand receptions. I shall never forget how the warm-hearted people in Pennsylvania treated us.

"When we reached Chicago many fathers, mothers, sisters and brothers could not recognize their own boys. I lost forty-seven and one-half pounds during the four months' campaign."

So much has been printed heretofore of the experiences during the Santiago campaign that greater interest remains now in the stories of Cuba as it is to-day, as seen by the men who are now in service in that island. The Second Regiment of Illinois Infantry has been on active

duty there since early in the winter and many interesting letters have come from soldiers in the regiment.

Sergeant S. T. Hunter of Company L, Second Illinois Volunteers Infantry, says, concerning the landing of the regiment in Cuba and their subsequent experience:

"As we steamed slowly in past Morro castle thousands of Spanish soldiers filled with curiosity lined its walls and watched us. On one side were the frowning walls of Morro and on the other the sand batteries of Punta castle. Just as we were passing these forts our band struck up 'The Star-Spangled Banner,' and as the first strains were heard we gave a cheer that must have been heard for miles. The next castle we passed was La Cabanas, then De La Fuerza battery, and then Casa Blanca, all filled with Spanish soldiers. These forts are on a high bluff of solid stone, about 125 feet above the narrow entrance to the harbor. You can imagine how proud we all feel to know that the Second Illinois was the first volunteer regiment picked out to form the corps that was to have taken this Gibraltar of America.

"As we entered the harbor a cheer went up from the 2,800 men on board. We saw for the first time the fine United States cruiser New York, with its big guns glistening in the sunlight. Our flag was lowered as a salute, and as quick as a flash she answered back with a salute of eleven guns, the sound of which made our throbbing hearts beat as they had never beat before.

"We anchored at one of the docks, and in a short time a crowd of Cubans was at work unloading the baggage. We did not leave the ship until two days later. Part of the time was spent in looking at the wreck of the Maine, which lay about 100 yards away. Very little remains to be seen except a mass of twisted steel and the fighting top. It must have been a powerful mine that sent this gallant ship to the bottom.

"Saturday noon we left the transport and started for the camp, nine miles away. We marched down some of the main streets of the city between two human walls of Cubans and Spaniards, and at every step were greeted with hoarse shouts of 'Viva Cuba Libre' and 'Viva Los Americanos.' Men slapped and hugged one another and the women knelt down and prayed and kissed one another. Some held naked chil-

dren up to the windows, which have heavy iron bars instead of glass in them. I shall never forget the sight of those women and children. They had a sickly yellowish hue on their faces, and each one had the marks of poverty and starvation written deep on it. They looked so thin and unnatural that one could not help thinking they had never seen the light of day. Their faces were so ghastly that they made me sick. Occasionally we saw a beautiful woman, but it was very seldom. The streets are very narrow—few are over fifteen feet wide.

**TROOPS ENTER
HAVANA FOR
PEACE DUTIES.**

"The day was very hot, and the march of nine miles soon began to tell on the boys. But every mile or so we halted to rest, so that we could unsling our heavy knapsacks and rest our aching backs. We came near having a fight while passing a blockhouse where a body of Spanish soldiers was stationed. They were drawn up in line on one side of the road. A little Cuban boy about 12 years old was marching along with our company and was carrying one of the boys' rifles for him, and as he passed the line of Spaniards one of them knocked him down with his rifle. Had it not been for our officers interfering we would have surely had a 'mix-up.' We are not allowed out of camp except to go to swim, and then under a strong guard.

"So far the Spaniards have shot three of our men, but all will recover. Our regiment is to bear a very prominent part in the raising of the American flag on Morro castle January 1, the day we take control of the island. Our camp is a fine one; the ground is almost solid rock. We are located on a bluff 200 feet high and sloping toward the ocean, which is a mile away. The New York left last night, but the Texas and the Brooklyn came in as she went out. In a few days the whole Atlantic squadron will be here. The name of our camp has been changed to Camp Columbia. Within a short walk from here are orange and banana groves; also tall cocoanut trees. And a mile away is a Spanish fort surrounded by five rows of barbed-wire fence, each fence five feet high. Everywhere one can see how well they had prepared to receive us. We have large hospital tents for every six men, and all have folding cots. The only fruit we are allowed to eat is oranges. There are a few cases of yellow fever about three miles away from here, but the doctors say we are in no danger."

Raymond C. Haigh writes as follows, the letter being dated at Havana, December 18, 1898:

"We are in camp at last—and such a place! There is a town about two miles away where they have yellow fever. We are not allowed outside the camp, and if one does go outside the limits he is put in a tent by himself for ten days. We left Savannah on the night of the 13th and arrived at Havana at 9:30 the morning of the 15th. We had a swell trip on the *Mobile*—a fine boat. The sea was not at all rough, so none of us were sea-sick—at least enough to count. We saluted Morro castle, a wonderfully strong place and one that we would have had our own troubles in taking. We anchored right alongside the wreck of the *Maine*. All you can see of the wreck is the mast and some iron sticking out of the water. It looks just like the pictures you see of it. The *New York* and the gunboat *Topeka* saluted us, firing thirteen guns each. We were packed up and ready to leave at 6 o'clock, but we had to stand in heavy marching order over an hour before we got off the boat. We then started on the worst march of my life.

"Our camp is about twelve miles from the city, which is very dirty. The first part of our march was through the Spanish part of the town, and of course we did not receive much of a welcome, but when we struck the Cuban part of the town such a welcome! Why, the people just went crazy. All they could say was 'Long live America.' The people had hardly any clothes on—small children none at all. When we stopped any place to get a drink they gave us wine and all the cigars we wanted. and maybe you think the cigars were not fine. When I come home I will bring some if possible, and I cannot get out of this place any too quick, I can promise you that. A person's life is not worth much in this land.

"Our mail man was shot in the leg last night, also the driver, and we had not been in camp over three hours. The Spanish soldiers are camped right by us, and they would just as soon shoot as look at you. One of the North Carolina lieutenants was shot while burying one of their men. The soldier was taken sick at night and died next morning. We all think he had the yellow fever, but, of course, the doctors say not. The boys are all knocked out to-day. We were the only regiment that had to make the march in heavy marching order. It was enough to kill us, but it looks as if our officers have no pity on us.

We had to pitch our tents after getting to camp, and did not have a thing to eat until this morning, and then only bread and coffee, but we are going to get meat for dinner.

"Our camp is near the ocean, but there are all kinds of dead animals around us and it does not smell any too good. The air is full of buzzards. They light right on the tents.

Water is very hard to get. It has to be carried over five miles in kegs. I have not been able to wash since I left the boat, and my face and hands are a sight. But they are going to march us to the river this afternoon and we'll have a swim."

**HOW SOLDIERS
ARE ENCAMPED
NEAR HAVANA.**

Ben K. Howard, a private encamped in Cuba, wrote to his mother, describing Christmas festivities in camp and sending a picture of the opening of his Christmas box. Concerning the camp in Cuba he says, under date of December 21:

"At last I am in camp, eight miles from Havana, after being on duty on wagon trains since we landed on the 15th—or, rather, got off the boat, for we arrived on the 13th but stayed on the boat until the 15th. The camp is about a mile from the ocean, on high ground, and we can see the ocean and surrounding country. We have large brown tents, six men to a tent, which are very nice, and cots to sleep on. I went for a swim in a creek about a mile from here yesterday, and after the swim walked four miles to a town called Marianao, on the coast, and met a lot of Cuban soldiers, who treated me fine.

"While in town on that wagon-train detail I got to see Havana right. The Spanish soldiers shook hands with me, gave me rosettes off their hats and Mauser bullets and generally treated me well. I visited the Hotel Inglaterra, where the riot was, and saw the bullet holes through the glass and in the staircase. I saw Morro castle and the underground passage and have been in the Spanish garrisons here. I have handled the first American flag that waved in Havana—the one the piece you sent speaks about.

"Water has to be carried a mile and each man is allowed only a gallon a day. We cannot leave camp—officers or men—to go to Havana except on special details, as we have no business there until January 1, when all the Spaniards must be gone. As I write I suppose you

have the base burner booming, but I am in my undershirt—which I would like to take off—and have to stop every now and then to wipe the perspiration off my brow. I never felt better in my life, although it's hot as blazes, and a fellow has that tired feeling, of course.

"We expect to do provost duty in the city after the first of the year, therefore I don't think we'll fix up the camp much. I am making a collection of things and will send them when I get enough to fill a box. Our food is very poor and the quantity is not sufficient. I have bought food with what money I had, but it is getting short. Oil (kerosene) costs 90 cents a gallon and meat \$1.40 a pound."

Private F. C. Schultz of Company H, Second Regiment, Illinois Volunteers, describing the trip of the Second Battalion of the regiment from the camp near Havana to Cienfuegos, Cuba:

"They broke camp and marched before daylight. How easy it reads, but the Second Battalion will tell you it works harder than it reads. We received orders to have everything ready to pack on wagons at 3 A. M. December 30, 1898, and commence a journey to Cienfuegos—a city of 100 fires—so the evening before everybody packed knapsacks and went to sleep, getting up again at 1 A. M. The boys composing the four companies of the battalion (H, F, E and G) were kept hustling, nailing boxes, packing them with luggage and loading them on wagons, then unloading them on the cars. The cars were of three classes, each worse than the other. Springs were forgotten, a great oversight on the part of the builder. But by this time, however, we were pretty well used to roughing it, and as we rolled along toward

SOLDIER'S JOURNEY

ACROSS

THE ISLAND.

Cienfuegos we enjoyed the scenery. We went over plains and through mountain valleys. As we did not have to march through the jungles we enjoyed them very much. At every town we passed through the Cubans turned out en masse, cheering the 'Americanos' and crying 'Cuba libre.' In one burg a battle-worn and bullet-scarred Cuban flag was displayed, while a band of four pieces played the Cuban national air. We saw the wrecks of many houses, burned by the Cubans or Spaniards. At Matanzas we stopped about two hours, the boys stepping off the cars and taking peeps at the town or chatting with the Spanish soldiers.

"We reached our camp, about three miles from Cienfuegos, about

4 A. M. Dec. 31, 1898. On Jan. 1, 1899, Major Dusenberry had officers' call sounded early, and we soon learned that the battalion was to march through the city of Cienfuegos, which only held about 30,000 Spanish soldiers, and raise three flags. We started out 300 strong, all as happy as schoolboys at recess. Cuban flags were flying from every house, but most of them had a United States flag above the Cuban colors. Major Dusenberry raised the first American flag in this city over the custom-house. Captain Barker of the navy hoisted the flag over the postoffice and Lieutenant Burns of Company F over the city hall."

Says one visitor to Havana after the American occupation was complete, regarding the conditions of living in the city:

"American officers who come to Havana and are not compelled to live in the field will find the expense of living in the city something greater than they want to stand. The officers now here with the peace commission and the military board have been looking into the matter, and they say that army officers, after a little experience, will object to being assigned to Havana. Those who are now attached to the peace commission, of which General Wade is chairman, have all their expenses paid. The entire restaurant is at their disposal, they are permitted to order everything from wine to doughnuts, and the government pays the bill. With Colonel Lee's military board the conditions of living are just what they will be when officers are sent down here in the future. Each man pays his own bills. Incidentally, his bills are consuming all his pay. Hotels are expensive in Havana. Ordinary comforts and conveniences are extravagantly high, and they are getting higher every day. The Spaniards think that the coming of the Americans in bodies will create an extra demand for all goods and provisions and that it is easy to command higher prices.

"Some of the officers now here will probably have to remain a year or more. Having had intimations to this effect, they are looking around for living accommodations. They have found that a house that might be available for an officer with a very small family cannot be rented for less than \$1,000 a year. This rental does not include furniture or even the ordinary utensils that go with an American house. Household furniture, moreover, is very dear in this city. With \$1,000 for rent, added

to the cost of putting the house in order and the expense of provisioning his establishment, life in Havana is placed almost beyond the reach of an American colonel, and what a captain or lieutenant would do can only be imagined.

"One of the officers who is to remain here is making arrangements to build his own home. He is waiting for the government lumber barges, and with the lumber which they bring he will erect a 'shack,' in which he will sleep and have his servant do his own cooking. This is all right for a gray-haired bachelor who has to be around storehouses all day, but would hardly suit the wife of an officer down here on special staff duty."

My own memories of life in Havana are exceedingly pleasant. In spite of dirty streets in the older and poorer quarters of the city, there were novelties and attractions enough to counterbalance such discomforts unless one were compelled to stay in those disagreeable places. In Havana I remember many congenial associations, among Spanish officers, Cuban plotters and Americans alike. It is true that during the years of insurrection one felt it necessary to be cautious in his actions and speech, owing to the constant suspicion that even the American or the Cuban at one's elbow might be a Spanish spy, but in spite of all, there were gaiety and life to be seen.

Under the American regime all this is improved. From the first night I slept on the rough dining table of the officers' mess in the marines' camp at Guantanamo bay, I felt the strong impression that a new era was dawning for the unhappy island, with the first landing of American forces on Cuban soil. Baiquiri, Siboney, Santiago all verified the impression, and to-day the people of Cuba are resting happy in the bright outlook before them.

THE AMERICAN
INFLUENCE
IN CUBA.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

CITIES AND PORTS OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

Places Where the Attractions for Travelers are Greatest—Centers of Commerce and Industry—How to Reach Havana—Fortifications of Havana—Morro Castle—Poor Sanitation Responsible for Yellow Fever—Picturesque Streets and Shops—Hotels, Theaters and Residences—Matanzas an Important City—Guantanamo Bay a Pirate Rendezvous—Santiago de Cuba and Its Morro Castle—When the American Fleet was There—Other Cities of Cuba.

WITHIN the last year, Americans have become familiar with the names of many important towns of Cuba which were unknown before. Warfare sometimes teaches geography as well as patriotism, and the knowledge which our country has obtained of the islands of the East and West Indies during our war with Spain has been an evidence of that fact. Havana, the metropolis of Cuba, has been well known because of its commercial relations with the United States and naturally should have first attention in the description of the cities. It is not, however, the only one of importance and the others are in some instances hardly second in interest.

In spite of the little encouragement which American tourists have had for visiting the city of Havana, for many years it has been a popular place of resort for the few who have tried it or have been recommended to it by their friends. With the attractions it has had during Spanish administration, when an air of constraint and suspicion marked the intercourse with every American, it will not be surprising if under changed auspices and in an atmosphere of genuine freedom, Americans will find it one of the most delightful and easily accessible places possible for them to visit. It is not all pleasant, but the unpleasant things are sometimes quite as interesting as the pleasant ones. If the traveler forms his judgments according to the actual comforts he may obtain, he will be pleased from beginning to end of his stay. If the

**TOURIST
ATTRACTIONS
OF HAVANA.**

measure of his good opinion is whether or not things are like those to which he is accustomed, he will be disappointed, because novelty reigns, But novelty does not necessarily mean discomfort.

Havana may be reached by a sea voyage of three or four days from New York, on any one of several excellent steamers under the American flag, and even in winter the latter portion of the voyage will be a pleasant feature of the journey. Or the path of the American invading-squadron may be followed, and the traveler, after passing through Florida by rail, may journey from Tampa by the mail steamers, and touching at Key West for a few hours, reach Havana after a voyage of two nights and a day.

The Florida straits, between Cuba and the Florida keys, which were the scene of the first hostilities of the war, are but ninety miles wide, and the voyage is made from Key West in a few hours. The current of the gulf stream makes the channel a trifle reminiscent of the English channel, but once under the lee of the Cuban coast the water is still and the harbor of the old city offers shelter.

In the days before the war, Morro castle had an added interest to the traveler from the fact that behind its frowning guns and under the rocks on which it is built were the cells of scores of sad prisoners, some of them for years in the dungeons, whose walls could tell secrets like those of the inquisition in Spain if they could but speak. Between Morro castle and its neighbor across the way, La Punta, the vessels steam into that bay, foul with four hundred years of Spanish misrule and filth, where three hundred years of the slave trade centered, and into which the sewers of a great city poured their filth. Once inside the harbor, Cabaña castle frowns from the hills behind Morro, and on the opposite shore rise the buildings of the city itself.

The harbor always has been a busy one, for the commerce of the island and of the city has been large. In times of peace, scores of vessels lie at anchor in the murky waters. The American anchorage for mail steamers for years has been in the extremest part of the bay from the city of Havana itself, in order to avoid the contagion which was threatened by a nearer anchorage. Until the *Maine* was guided to her ill-fated station by the harbor master, it had been long since any American vessel had stopped in that part of the harbor.

The shallow harbor of Havana has its entrance from the ocean through a channel hardly more than three hundred yards wide, and nearly half a mile long, after which it broadens and ramifies until its area becomes several square miles.

No fresh water stream, large or small, flows into it to purify the waters. The harbor entrance is so narrow, and the tides along that coast have so little rise and fall, that the level of water in the harbor hardly shows perceptible change day after day.

The result of this is that the constant inflow of sewage from the great city pouring into the harbor is never diluted, and through the summer is simply a festering mass of corruption, fronting the whole sea wall and throwing a stench into the air which must be breathed by everyone on shipboard. There is one part of the harbor known as "dead man's hole," from which it is said no ship has ever sailed after an anchorage of more than one day, without bearing the infection of yellow fever among its crew.

Along the shores of this very harbor are great warehouses for the sugar and tobacco shipped into the United States by the thousands of tons every year. To preserve our national health, our government has maintained an expensive marine hospital service and quarantine system along our southern ports which trade with Havana, in addition to supporting a marine hospital service under the eminent Dr. Burgess in Havana itself. To the rigid enforcement of this system, and the untiring vigilance of Dr. Burgess, must be credited the immunity which the United States has had from annual epidemics of yellow fever and small-pox.

The Measure of Spanish Misrule.

The guilt of Spain in permitting this shocking condition to continue, cannot in any way be palliated. For four hundred years she has had sway in the island, free to work her own will, and drawing millions of dollars of surplus revenue out of the grinding taxes she has imposed. The installation of a sanitary system of sewage, which should discharge into the open sea instead of into this cesspool which lies at the city's feet, would have been the first solution of the difficulty. The threat of

danger would have been finally averted by the expenditure of a few hundred thousand dollars, which would open a channel from the further extremity of the harbor to the ocean eastward. The distance is but a few miles and the engineering problem a simple one. This and the construction of a jetty northwestward from the point on which Morro castle stands, would divert a portion of the current of the noble gulf stream into the harbor entrance, and the foul pond of to-day would be scoured of its filth by a perennial flood which could never fail.

**HOW TO CLEAN
HAVANA
HARBOR.**

Vera Cruz, on the Mexican coast, has proven that it is possible to exterminate yellow fever, and it is a duty owed to civilization that Havana shall follow along the same path. If all other excuses were to be ignored, the United States for years has had ample cause for intervention in Cuban affairs, as a measure of safety to the health of her own citizens, as truly as one man may complain to the authorities if his neighbor maintains a nuisance in the adjoining yard.

Once anchored in the safest place in the harbor, the mail steamers are surrounded without delay by a fleet of peculiar boats of a sort seen only in the bay of Havana. For a bit of silver, the traveler is taken ashore, the journey to the landing stage being a matter of but a few moments. The journey through the custom house is not a formidable one, for unless there is suspicion of some contraband goods, the customs officers are not exacting upon travelers. At the door of the custom house, or aduana, wait the cabs, which are cheaper in Havana than in any other city of the new world, and they serve as a conveyance to the hotels, which are all grouped in the same neighborhood.

The streets through which the traveler passes are picturesque, but hardly practical, from the American point of view. Some of them are so narrow that carriages cannot pass, and all traffic must go in one direction. Nearly all of the business streets have awnings extending from one side to the other, between the roofs, as a protection from the tropic sun. The sidewalks on some of the most pretentious streets are not wide enough for three persons to walk abreast, and on others two cannot pass. On every hand one gets the impression of antiquity, and antiquity even greater than the four hundred years of Spanish occupancy actually measures. Spanish architecture, however modern it

may be, sometimes adds to that impression and one might believe himself, with little stretch of the imagination, to be in one of the ancient cities of the old world.

The streets are paved with blocks of granite and other stone, roughly cut and consequently exceedingly noisy, but upon these narrow streets front some shops as fine as one might expect to discover in New York or Paris. It is true that they are not large, but they do not need to be, for nearly all are devoted to specialties, instead of carrying stocks of goods of the American diversity. The one who wants to shop will not lack for temptations. The selection is ample in any line that may be named, the styles are modern and in exquisite taste, and altogether the shops are a considerable surprise to one who judges them first from the exterior. Stores devoted exclusively to fans, parasols, gloves, laces, jewels, bronzes, silks and the beautiful cloth of pineapple fiber known as nipe cloth, are an indication of the variety that may be found. The shoes and other articles of men's and women's clothing are nearly all direct importations from Paris, and where Parisian styles dominate one may be assured that the selection is not a scanty one. Clerks are courteous even to the traditional point of Castilian obsequiousness, and altogether a shopping expedition along this Obispo street is an experience to be remembered with pleasure.

**CHARACTERISTICS
OF STREETS
AND SHOPS.**

You notice that everything is made to serve comfort and coolness. Instead of having panes of glass, the windows are open and guarded by light iron railings, and the heavy wooden doors are left ajar. You see into many houses as you pass along, and very cool and clean they look. There are marble floors, cane-seated chairs and lounges, thin lace curtains, and glimpses of courts in the center of each building, often with green plants or gaudy flowers growing in them between the parlor and the kitchen.

You find much the same plan at your hotel. You may walk in at the doors or the dining room windows just as you please, for the sides of the house seem capable of being all thrown open; while in the center of the building you see the blue sky overhead. Equally cool do all the inhabitants appear to be, and the wise man who consults his own comfort will do well to follow the general example. Even the soldiers wear

straw hats. The gentlemen are clad in underwear of silk or lisle thread and suits of linen, drill or silk, and the ladies are equally coolly appareled.

Havana is a dressy place, and you will be astonished at the neatness and style to which the tissue-like goods worn there are made to conform.

Details of Home Life.

But come and see the apartment you are to rest in every night. Ten to one the ceiling is higher than you ever saw one in a private house, and the huge windows open upon a balcony overlooking a verdant plaza. The floor is of marble or tiling, and the bed is an ornate iron or brass affair, with a tightly stretched sheet of canvas or fine wire netting in place of the mattress you are used to. You could not sleep on a mattress with any proper degree of comfort in the tropics. There is a canopy with curtains overhead, and everything about the room is pretty certain to be scrupulously clean. Conspicuous there and everywhere else that you go is a rocking chair. Rocking chairs are to be found in the houses, and in regiments in the clubs.

HOW THE HOUSES ARE FURNISHED.

Havana is the metropolis of the West Indies. It has more life and bustle than all the rest of the archipelago put together. If you are German, English, Scotch, Dutch, American, French or whatever you are, you will find fellow countrymen among its 250,000 souls. There is a public spirit there which is rare in these climes. The theaters astonish you by their size and elegance. The aristocratic club is the Union, but the popular one is the Casino Espanol, whose club house is a marvel of tropical elegance and beauty. Nearly all these attractions are on or near the broad, shady and imposing thoroughfare, the Prado—a succession of parks leading from the water opposite Morro castle almost across the city.

Band Music in the Plazas.

In one or another of these parks a military band plays on three evenings of the week, and the scene on such occasions is wholly new to

English eyes. It is at such times that one may see the beautiful Spanish and Cuban women. They do not leave their houses in the heat of the day unless something requires them to do so, and when they do they remain in their carriages, and are accompanied by a servant or an elderly companion. So strict is the privacy with which they are surrounded that you shall see them shopping without quitting their carriages, waited on by the clerks, who bring the goods out to the vehicles.

ATTRACTIONS OF
CITY LIFE
IN CUBA.

But when there is music under the laurels or palms the *senoritas*, in their light draperies, and wearing nothing on their heads save the picturesque mantilla of Old Spain, assemble on the paths, the seats, the sidewalks and in their carriages, and there the masculine element repairs and is very gallant, indeed.

Here you will listen to the dreamy melody of these latitudes, Spanish love songs and Cuban waltzes so softly pretty that you wonder all the world does not sing and play them. On other nights the walk or drive along the Prado is very interesting. You pass some of the most elegant of the houses, and notice that they are two stories high, and that the family apartments are on the upper stories, so that you miss the furtive views of the families at meals and of the ladies reclining in the broad-tiled window sills that you have in the older one-story sections of the city.

The city of Havana may be said to stand in the same relation to Cuba that Paris does to France, for in it are centered the culture, the refinement, and the wealth of the island, but there are several other towns of considerable importance, and many of them have become places of interest since the struggle for liberty has attracted the attention of the civilized world.

Chief among these is Matanzas. This city, with a normal population of about 60,000, is situated fifty miles east of Havana, with which it is connected by rail and water. Its shipping interests are second only to those of the capital, as it is the outlet of many of the richest agricultural districts of the island.

The city is situated on the flats on both sides of the San Juan river, which brings down large quantities of mud and greatly impedes inland navigation. As an offset the bay is spacious, easy of access and shel-

tered from the violent gulf storms which prevail at some seasons. This makes the port a favorite with marine men. A large amount of money has been spent by the government to fortify and protect the city, and it has been connected by rail with all the principal towns and producing centers of the provinces. Thus it is a particularly favorite port of entry for all the supplies required in the plantations—food staples and machinery. Its exports consist principally of sugar, coffee, molasses, tobacco, honey, wax and fruits.

The city is built principally of masonry and in a most substantial manner, though little effort has been made to secure architectural beauty. The pride of the city is the new theater, which is pointed out as the handsomest building in Cuba. The Empresa Academy also takes rank equal with any for the excellence of its educational facilities.

There is no more charming spot in Cuba than Matanzas. The bay is like a crescent in shape, and receives the waters of the Yumuri and Matanzas rivers, two small unnavigable streams. A high ridge separates them. On this ridge back of the town stands a cathedral dedicated to the black virgin. It is a reproduction of a cathedral in the Balearic islands. The view from its steeple is magnificent. Looking backward the valley of the Yumuri stretches to the right. It is about ten miles wide and sixty miles long, dotted with palms, and as level as a barn floor. The Yumuri breaks through the mountains near Matanzas bay something like the Arkansas river at Canon City. Carpeted with living green and surrounded with mountains this valley is one of the gems of Cuba.

**MATANZAS
AND ITS
SURROUNDINGS.**

About ten miles from Matanzas, on the left of the road, stand what are known as the Breadloaf Mountains. They rise from the plain like the Spanish peaks in Colorado. These mountains are the headquarters of General Betancourt, who commands the insurgents in the province. The Spaniards have offered \$1,000 reward for his head. Several efforts have been made to secure it, but in all cases the would-be captor has lost his own head.

In accordance with the Weyler edict 11,000 reconcentrados were herded together at Matanzas, and within a year over 9,000 of them died in the city. In the Plaza, under the shadow of the Governor's residence,



SUBURBAN RESIDENCE STREET, MATANZAS, CUBA

Architecture in the Spanish American islands is very strange to the eyes of travelers from the north. Sometimes there is a reminiscence of the castle, coudes and porticos of ancient Greece and Rome. Masonry is employed everywhere, the decorations usually being of plaster.



PLAZA DE ARMAS, FROM THE PALACE, HAVANA

It is easy to discern, from the accompanying picture, that the Spanish occupation has not left Havana void of public improvements and attractive pleasure-grounds in the places where their own comforts could be served thereby. This is a famous beauty-spot in Havana.

twenty-three people died from starvation in one day. The province of Matanzas is not larger in area than the state of Delaware, yet 55,000 people have perished from starvation and incident diseases since the order went into effect.

Matanzas had the honor of being the scene of the first actual bombardment of any fortification in Cuba during our war with Spain. On April 27 the flagship of Admiral Sampson's fleet, the *New York*, the monitor *Puritan* and the cruiser *Cincinnati* opened fire upon the forts. The Spaniards had been actively at work on the fortifications at Punta Gorda and it was the knowledge of this fact that led Admiral Sampson to shell the place, the purpose being to prevent their completion. In less than twenty minutes Admiral Sampson's warships had silenced the Spanish batteries.

Approaching Cuba as Columbus did—across the narrow stretch of sea from San Domingo—you first sight the long, low promontory of the eastern tip, which the discoverer named Point Maysi. So different is the prospect from that seen at the other end of the island, as you come down in the usual route from New York or Florida, that you can hardly believe it is the same small country. From Maysi Point the land rises in sharp terraces, backed by high hills and higher mountains, all so vague in mist and cloud that you do not know where land ends and sky begins. Coming nearer, gray ridges are evolved, which look like cowed monks peering over each other's shoulders, with here and there a majestic peak towering far above his fellows—like the Pico Turquino, 11,000 feet above the sea. Sailing westward along this south shore, the "Queen of the Antilles" looks desolate and forbidding, as compared to other portions of the West Indies; a panorama of wild heights and sterile shores, and surge-beaten cliffs covered with screaming sea birds. At rare intervals an opening in the rock-bound coast betrays a tiny harbor, bordered by cocoanut palms, so guarded and concealed by hills, and its sudden revelation, when close upon it, astonishes you as it did the first explorer.

According to tradition, everyone of these was once a pirate's lair, in the good old days we read about, when "long, low, suspicious-looking craft, with raking masts," used to steal out from sheltered coves to

GUANTANAMO BAY
AND
THE PIRATES.

plunder the unwary. Each little bay, whose existence was unknown to honest mariners, has a high wooded point near its entrance, where the sea robbers kept perpetual watch for passing merchantmen and treasure-laden galleons, their own swift-sailing vessels safe out of sight within the cove; and then, at a given signal out they would dart upon the unsuspecting prey like a spider from his web. Among the most notorious piratical rendezvous was Guantanamo, which our warships occupied as a naval station throughout the war. In recent years its narrow bay, branching far inland like a river, has become of considerable consequence, by reason of a railway which connects it with Santiago, and also because the patriot army, hidden in the nearby mountains, made it a place of activity for the Spaniards. Before the war there were extensive sugar plantations in this city, now all devastated.

The Cobre mountains, looming darkly against the horizon, are the great copper and iron range of Cuba. In earlier days \$4,000,000 a year was the average value of Cuba's copper and iron exports; but in 1867 6,000,000 tons were taken out in less than ten months. Then Spain put her foot in it, as usual. Not content with the lion's share, which she had always realized in exorbitant taxes on the product, she increased the excise charges to such an extent as to kill the industry outright. For a long time afterward the ore lay undisturbed in the Cobre "pockets," until the attention of Americans was turned this way. Their first iron and copper claims in these mountains were recognized by the Cuban government about seventeen years ago. Three Yankee corporations have developed rich tracts of mining territory hereabouts, built railways from the coast to their works on the hills and exported ore to the United States. The oldest of these companies employed 2,000 men, and had 1,600 cars and a fleet of twenty steamers for the transportation of its output. The Carnegie Company, whose product was shipped to Philadelphia, also employed upwards of a thousand men.

At last an abrupt termination of the stern, gray cliffs which mark this shore line indicates the proximity of Santiago harbor, and a nearer approach reveals the most picturesque fort or castle, as well as one of the oldest, to be found on the western hemisphere. An enormous rounding rock, whose base has been hollowed into great caverns by the restless Caribbean, standing just at the entrance of the narrow channel

leading into the harbor, is carried up from the water's edge in a succession of walls, ramparts, towers and turrets, forming a perfect picture of a rock-ribbed fortress of the middle ages. This is the famous castle of San Jago, the Morro, which antedates the more familiar fortress of the same name in Havana harbor by at least a hundred years. Words are of little use in describing this antique, Moorish-looking stronghold, with its crumbling, honey-combed battlements, queer little flanking turrets and shadowy towers, perched upon the face of a dun-colored cliff 150 feet high—so old, so odd, so different from anything in America with which to compare it. A photograph, or pencil sketch is not much better, and even a paint brush could not reproduce the exact shadings of its time-worn, weather-mellowed walls—the Oriental pinks and old blues and predominating yellows that give it half its charm. Upon the lowermost wall, directly overhanging the sea, is a dome-shaped sentry box of stone, flanked by antiquated cannon. Above it the lines of masonry are sharply drawn, each guarded terrace receding upon the one next higher, all set with cannon and dominated by a massive tower of obsolete construction.

It takes a good while to see it all, for new stories and stairways, wings and terraces, are constantly cropping out in unexpected places, but as it occupies three sides of the rounding cliff and the pilot who comes aboard at the entrance to the channel guides your steamer close up under the frowning battlements, you have ample time to study it. Window holes cut into rock in all directions show how extensive are the excavations. A large garrison was always quartered here, even in time of peace, when their sole business was searching for shady places along the walls against which to lean. There were ranges above ranges of walks, connected by stairways cut into the solid rock, each range covered with lolling soldiers. Steamers passed so near that one could hear them chattering together. Those on the topmost parapet, dangling their blue woolen legs over, were so high and so directly overhead that they reminded one of flies on the ceiling.

In various places small niches have been excavated in the cliff, some with crucifixes, or figures of saints, and in other places the bare,

THE ENTRANCE
TO SAN-
TIAGO HARBOR.

THE BATTLEMENTS
OF
MORRO CASTLE.

unbroken wall of rock runs up, sheer straight 100 feet. Below, on the ocean side, are caves, deep, dark and uncanny, worn deep into the rock. Some of them are so extensive that they have not been explored in generations.

The broad and lofty entrances to one of them, hollowed by the encroaching sea, is as perfect an arch as could be drawn by a skillful architect, and with it a tradition is connected which dates back a couple of centuries. A story or two above these wave-eaten caverns are many small windows, each heavily barred with iron. They are dungeons dug into the solid rock, and over them might well be written, "Leave hope behind, ye who enter here!" A crowd of haggard, pallid faces once pressed against the bars; and steaming slowly by, so close that one might speak to the wretched prisoners, it seemed as if a shadow had suddenly fallen upon the bright sunshine, and a chill, like that of coming death, oppressed the heart. Since time out of mind, the Morro of Santiago has furnished dungeons for those who have incurred the displeasure of the government, infinitely more to be dreaded than its namesake in Havana. Had these slimy walls a tongue, what stories they might reveal of crime and suffering, of tortures nobly undergone, of death prolonged through dragging years, and murders that will not "out" until the judgment day.

Against that old tower a quarter of a century ago, our countrymen of the *Virginus* were butchered like sheep. Scores of later patriots have been led out upon the ramparts and shot, their bodies perhaps with life yet in them, falling into the sea where they were snapped up by sharks as soon as they touched the water.

It was before the entrance of this harbor and in the shadow of Morro castle that the blockading fleet of American warships lay in wait for Cervera's fleet during the long weeks of June. It was there that Hobson rendered himself famous by his glorious courage in taking the *Merrimac* into the very throat of the guns and sinking her in the effort to obstruct the channel. It was through this narrow exit that the Spanish vessels passed on that memorable Sunday, the third of July, to meet their prompt destruction in the running fight with the fleet under command of Admiral Schley.

EVENTS SEEN
BEFORE
MORRO CASTLE.

It was my pleasure and privilege to cruise back and forth in the shadow of Morro castle with that blockading fleet through part of June and July. It was easy to appreciate the motive that spared the old fortification in all the bombardments of the shore batteries. The American gunners felt that it would be a pity to demolish the old ruin which had such remarkable picturesque beauty and historic interest for the Americans who might come after them. But one shot ever was fired at Morro castle from the guns of the American fleet. A gunner of the Iowa, at the command of Captain Evans, took careful aim at the angle of the wall where the red and yellow banner of Spain was floating on its staff. The shot was a perfect one although the range was more than two miles, and the whole southeast bastion of the fortress crumbled into fragments of ancient masonry at the explosion of the shell, while every man in the fleet felt like cheering when the emblem of cruelty fell into the dust.

The narrow, winding channel which leads from the open sea into the harbor, pursues its sinuous course past several other fortifications of quaint construction, but of little use against modern guns—between low hills and broad meadows, fishing hamlets and cocoanut groves. Presently you turn a sharp angle in the hills and enter a broad, land-locked bay, inclosed on every side by ranges of hills with numerous points and promontories jutting into the tranquil water, leaving deep little coves behind them, all fringed with cocoa-palms. Between this blue bay and a towering background of purple mountains lies the city which Diego Velazquez, its founder, christened in honor of the patron saint of Spain, as far back as the year 1514. It is the oldest standing city in the new world, excepting Santo Domingo, which Columbus himself established only eighteen years earlier. By

the way, San Jago, San Diego and Santiago, are really the same name, rendered Saint James in our language; and wherever the Spaniards have been are numbers of them. This particular city of Saint James occupies a sloping hillside, 500 miles southeast from Havana, itself the capital of a department, and ranks the third city of Cuba in commercial importance—Matanzas being second. As usual in all these southern ports, the water is too shallow for large vessels to approach the dock and steamers

**CHARACTERISTICS
OF SAN-
TIAGO DE CUBA.**

have to anchor a mile from shore. Until the American occupation brought new enterprise into the civic administration, the city was one of the dirtiest that could be conceived. All of its sewage emptied into the harbor, which, although a larger bay, is almost as stagnant as that of Havana. For many centuries the mariners of the Spanish main have dreaded Santiago de Cuba, because of the threat of yellow fever and smallpox which always existed there. Under the military governorship of General Leonard Wood, a notable change was made in the sanitation of the city, and enough was learned to prove that it is quite possible to make the cities of Cuba wholesome places of residence if proper methods are employed.

Red roofed buildings of stone and adobe entirely cover the hillsides which rise from the wharves of Santiago, with here and there a dome, a tower, a church steeple shooting upward, or a tall palm poking its head above a garden wall—the glittering green contrasting well with the ruddy tiles and the pink, gray, blue and yellow of the painted walls. In the golden light of a tropical morning it looks like an oriental town, between sapphire sea and turquoise mountains. Its low massive buildings, whose walls surround open courts, with pillared balconies and corridors, the great open windows protected by iron bars instead of glass, and roofs covered with earthen tiles—are a direct importation from Southern Spain, if not from further east. Tangiers, in Africa, is built upon a similar sloping hillside, and that capital of Morocco does not look a bit more Moorish than Santiago de Cuba. On the narrow strip of land bordering the eastern edge of the harbor, the Morro at one end and the city at the other, are some villas, embowered in groves and gardens, which belong mostly to Americans interested in the Cobre mines. The great iron piers on the right belong to the American mining companies, built for loading ore upon their ships.

Fifty miles east of Matanzas is the city of Cardenas, the last port of any consequence on the north coast of the island. It has a population of 25,000, and is the capital of a fertile district. It is one of the main outlets of Cuba's richest province, Matanzas, and is the great railroad center of the island, or, more properly speaking, it ought to be, as the railroads of the country form a junction fifteen miles inland, at an insignificant station called Jouvellenes.

In time of peace Cardenas enjoys a thriving business, particularly in sugar and molasses, its exports of the former sometimes amounting to 100,000 tons a year. To the west and south stretch the great sugar estates which have made this section of Spain's domain a prize to be fought for. The water side of the town is faced with long wharves and lined with warehouses, and its extensive railway depot would do credit to any metropolis.

**IMPORTANT
PORT OF
CARDENAS.**

There are a few pretentious public buildings, including the customs house, hospital and college. Its cobble paved streets are considerably wider than those of Havana, and have two lines of horse cars. There is gas and electric light, and more two-story houses than one is accustomed to see on the island.

But, notwithstanding the broad, blue bay in front, and the Paseo, whose tall trees seem to be touching finger tips across the road, congratulating each other on the presence of eternal summer, Cardenas is not an attractive town. One misses the glamour of antiquity and historic interest which pervades Havana, Matanzas and Santiago, and feels somehow that the town is new without being modern, young but not youthful.

Puerto Principe, or to give it its full name in the Spanish tongue, Santa Maria de Puerto Principe, is the capital of the Central department, and is situated about midway between the north and south coasts, 305 miles southeast of Havana, and forty-five miles southwest of Nuevas, its port, with which it is connected by railroad. Its population is about 30,000 and it is surrounded by a rich agricultural district.

One of the most attractive cities of Cuba is Trinidad, which lies near the south coast, three miles by rail from the port of Casildas. It is beautifully situated on high land overlooking the sea, and on account of its mild and very equable climate it is a favorite resort for tourists and invalids.

Nuevas, Sancti Espiritu, Baracoa and Cienfuegos are all centers of population with many natural advantages, and with a just form of government, and the advent of American enterprise and capital, they might become prosperous, attractive, and of great commercial importance.

CHAPTER XL.

A GLANCE AT THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

New Attractions Offered to American Tourists—The Climate and the Seasons of the Island—The Valley of the Yumuri—The Caves of Bellamar—The Mountain Chains of Cuba—Political Divisions of the Island—Popular Divisions of Cuba—Caverns and Subterranean Rivers—Cataracts and Lakes—The Fertile Plains of the Island—Coral Reefs and Tropical Islets—Marshes Along the Coast—Roads and Vehicles—A Word Concerning the Accuracy of Maps—Railway Lines of Cuba—Steamship Service Between the Ports—The Isle of Pines and Its Resources—A New Naval Station.

A **AMERICANS** will need to learn new avenues of travel in order to become familiar with the attractions of the new lands which have come under their influence. Cuba, Puerto Rico, Hawaii and the Philippines offer their individual and peculiar attractions of scenery, climate, resources and manners of life. The people are different, mountains and forests are different, and the industries and resources are different; so that no one need feel that his information concerning one is sufficient to make him acquainted with the other.

When the island of Cuba, "The Pearl of the Antilles," was assigned a place upon the terrestrial globe, Nature must have been in her most generous mood. Certainly no land beneath the skies was given a more perfect combination of mountains and rivers, forests and plains. Situated within and near the border of the northern tropical zone, the temperature of the low coast-lands is that of the torrid zone, but the high interior of the island enjoys a delightful climate, and the verdure-clad hills, with the graceful palm and cocoanut tree clear against the pure blue sky, may be seen at all seasons of the year.

As in other countries on the borders of the tropics, the year is divided between a hot and wet season, corresponding to the northern declination of the sun, and a cool and dry period. The months from the beginning of May to October are called the wet season, though some rain falls in every month of the year. With May, spring begins in

the island, rain and thunder are of almost daily occurrence, and the temperature rises high, with little daily variation. The period from November to April is called the dry season by contrast. On a mean of seven years the rain-fall at Havana in the wet season has been observed to be 27.8 inches; of the dry months, 12.7, or 40.5 inches for the

RAINFALL AND
TEMPERATURE
IN CUBA.

year. July and August are the warmest months, and during this period the average temperature at Havana is 82 Fahrenheit, fluctuating between a maximum of 88 and a minimum of 76. In the cooler months of December and January the thermometer averages 72, the maximum being 78, and minimum 58. The average temperature of the year at Havana on a mean of seven years is 77. In the interior, at elevations of over 300 feet above the level of the sea, the thermometer occasionally falls to the freezing point in winter. Frost is not uncommon, and during north winds, thin ice may form, though snow is unknown in any part of the island.

The prevailing wind is the easterly trade breeze, but from November to February, cool north winds, rarely lasting more than forty-eight hours, are experienced in the western part of the island, to which they add a third seasonal change. Hurricanes may occur from August to October, but they are rare and sometimes five or six years pass without such a storm.

Many "globe-trotters" who have never included this little corner of the world in their itinerary, do not appreciate the fact that nowhere under the sun can be found a more perfect climate, grander mountain scenery, more charming valleys, more picturesque ruins, and fertile fields than Cuba offers to their view.

One of the grandest bits of scenery in the known world is to be found in the valley of the Yumuri, rivaling in sublimity the far-famed Lookout Mountain view and the Yosemite of the Sierra Nevadas. The journey leads over a winding trail, easily traversed by the native horses, up a steep hill, until, after a continuous climb of an hour and a half, the road turns around the edge of a grassy precipice, and the beautiful valley, with its patches of green and gold, spreads away in the distance. The little river of Yumuri winds its way through its flower-decked banks until it reaches the bay beyond, while in the dis-

tance rise the mighty mountains, clad in their coats of evergreen, and over all the fleecy clouds, and the sky of azure blue.

One of the most interesting trips that can be made is to the "Caves of Bellamar," which may be found about two and a half miles south-east of the city of Matanzas. The journey takes the traveler up a winding and rugged road to the top of a hill, where the "Cave House" is reached, a large frame structure built over the entrance, and containing, among other objects of interest, a large collection of beautiful crystal formations found in the cave.

Here the tourist enters his name in the visitors' register, pays his dollar, and follows the boy guide down the stairs into the cave. About 150 feet from the entrance a small bridge is crossed, and the "Gothic Temple" is reached. The only light comes from a few scattered lanterns, and is consequently very obscure, but one can see the
BEAUTIFUL CAVES millions of crystals, the thousand weird forms, and
OF realize that it is surpassingly beautiful. The temple
BELLAMAR. is about two hundred feet in length and seventy feet in width, and while it does not equal in size or solemn grandeur the temple of the same name in the Mammoth cave of Kentucky, it greatly excels it in the richness and splendor of its crystal formations and beautiful effects.

The spectator possessed of strongly developed imaginative powers cannot fail to feel himself in fairy-land. From the gloomy corners come gnomes and demons, and in the crystal shadows he sees sprites and lovely fairies, keeping gay revel to dreamy airs, played on invisible strings by spirit hands. One of the most beautiful objects in the cave is the "Fountain of Snow," a name given to one of the great pillars, called by the natives the "Cloak of the Virgin." Others are known as "Columbus Mantle," "The Altar," and "The Guardian Spirit."

The island of Cuba possesses a central mountain-chain reaching from Guardiana bay to Cape Maysi and then bending around to the south and west to Cape Cruz, attaining in places great elevation and again almost dropping to the sea level. Cruising along the southern coast of the island, on either side of Santiago, some of the notable peaks rise against the northern horizon. The crest of the Ojo del Toro, or Bull's Eye peak, attains an altitude of 5,100 feet about twenty miles

from Cape Cruz. Not far east of that peak is the other notable one known as Pico Turquino, which reaches a height of more than 8,300 feet. The region around Santiago is strikingly broken and mountainous, with many beautiful valleys and cascades and the most luxuriant of verdant foliage, orchids and other tropical flowers.

Turning westward from the mountains in the vicinity of Santiago and following the crest of the central chain, the next notable peak is the famous truncated cone near Baracoa, known as El Yunque de Baracoa, or the Anvil of Baracoa. In the Cubitas ranges, where the Cuban republic located its capital, are many great caves of notable beauty. With alternate depressions and greater elevations the central mountain range continues throughout the island, with many peaks which are visible from a long distance at sea.

**MOUNTAIN
SYSTEMS
AND PEAKS.**

The island falls conveniently into three mountainous districts, which may be identified as the western group, the central group, and the eastern group. The first includes the provinces of Pinar del Rio and Havana. It is very mountainous and broken. The northern slopes are watered by many small streams. The slope to the south coast is gradual and near the ocean it is marshy. In the interior the country is exceedingly fertile. Here in Pinar del Rio, south of the line of railway which connects the capital of the province with Havana, are the vast tobacco plantations that have made the Vuelta Abajo rich and famous.

The central district lies between Matanzas and the old Jucaro-Moron trocha, thus including the provinces of Matanzas and Santa Clara. It contains many extremely fertile plains, well watered by rivers, as well as many districts entirely sterile. Both coasts are guarded by chains of reefs and keys in great number and are low and marshy except for a few stretches of limited extent.

The eastern district includes the provinces of Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba. The portions north and south of the city of Puerto Principe are quite low and flat, except for the numerous isolated mountain groups. The plains of the north coast are marshy, becoming sandy and barren farther inland. The southern plains of the province, although sometimes overflowed along the coast, are in the interior

**NATURAL DIVISIONS
OF
THE ISLANDS.**

covered with fine pastures and luxuriant forests. The eastern extremity, as already noted, is very mountainous, cut up with copious streams and interspersed with tracts of great fertility.

There are no active volcanoes on the island, but many extinct ones are recognizable. Earthquakes occur chiefly in the province of Santiago. Notably severe ones have occurred in 1776, 1842 and 1852. Elsewhere in the island these convulsions of nature have been rare and much less destructive.

The political divisions of the island of Cuba comprising the six provinces, enumerating from the westward, of Pinar del Rio, Havana, Matanzas, Santa Clara, Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba are familiar to all readers. The seat of government of each of these is the city of the same name, the provinces having been named from their respective capital cities.

But there is another division of the island which is quite as essential to know, because it is the one most frequently employed by the Cubans themselves in conversation and writing. Beginning at the west, these four popular divisions are known respectively as the *Vuelta Abajo* or lower turn, the *Vuelta Arriba* or upper turn, *Las Cinco Villas* or the five towns, and the *Tierra Adentro* or the interior country. The first includes the westernmost portion of the island from Havana to Cape San Antonio; the second from the meridian of Havana to that of Santa Clara, the third from the meridian of Santa Clara to a line drawn across the island from Nuevitas to Santa Cruz, and the last includes the remainder of the island. The name of the division known

**POPULAR NAMES
FOR
ISLAND DISTRICTS.**

as *Las Cinco Villas* is taken from five important cities which it includes as separate jurisdictions, these being Sagua la Grande, Santa Clara, Trinidad, Remedios and Cienfuegos, although even this limitation is not exact, other towns sometimes being included as substitutes for these. The divisions themselves frequently overlap, the line between the last two being particularly ill defined.

Ecclesiastically, the island is divided into two dioceses, the archbishopric of Santiago de Cuba and the bishopric of Havana. The divisional line between their jurisdictions is the line between the province of Puerto Principe and Santa Clara.

The rivers of Cuba are of great number, but by the topography of the country it is quite impossible that they should be of great length. Nevertheless, from the large amount of rainfall in the wet season, the streams at that time carry great volumes of water.

The Cuban mountains, formed of metamorphic rocks, are covered with a thick layer of calcareous material of much later date geologically. Says one graphic writer: "It is only in some places that the underlying older formations project like the vertebrae of some gigantic extinct animal, half buried in the seas and its own detritus, the limestone formation representing the ancient flesh, the vegetable mold the cuticle and the vegetation the hairy covering. And more, this carcass is nearly all hollow within, for the descending water has dissolved the limestone, forming long, underground galleries into which it plunges, to appear and disappear again or to lie in great cavernous reservoirs from which, on account of their elevation, it is often forced by hydrostatic pressure fresh to the surface far out into the sea."

Elisee Reclus, the great geographer, tells us that in the islands east of the Isle of Pine, known as the Jardines, so named from the verdure-clad islets strewn like gardens amid the blue waters, springs of fresh water bubble up from the deep, flowing probably in subterranean galleries from the mainland. There are few countries in the world

**FRESH-WATER
SPRINGS
FAR AT SEA.**

more remarkable for the size and number of their subterranean cavities than Cuba. Among the most remarkable and famous caves are those of Resolladero Guacanaya in Guaniguanico; Maria Belen in Sierra de Anafe; that of Cotilla near San Jose de las Lajas, fifteen miles southeast of Havana; the magnificent caves of Bellamar in Matanzas, which have been described already in detail; those of San Jose de los Remedios; together with the caverns of Cubitas, Jibara, Yumuri, Holguin and Bayamo, while north of Guantanamo are the noted Monte Libano caverns.

Among the streams that lose themselves in the ground is the Rio San Antonio, in the province of Havana, which drains the wonderful lake of Ariguanabo, about twenty miles southwest of the city, disappearing beneath a large tree after passing through the town of San Antonio de los Baños. On the maps the stream appears to flow into

the lake, but the reverse is the case, as in reality it serves to drain the latter and keep its waters fresh. This is only one of many such which might be named. The short stream called the Moa has in its course one remarkable cataract with a fall of 300 feet and also a cave into which it plunges to appear again further down. The San Diego, in the province of Pinar del Rio, passes in its course under some beautiful natural arches or bridges called Los Portales.

A few of the rivers of Cuba are navigable for short distances for vessels of very light draft. One, the Cauto, which flows westward in the province of Santiago, is navigable for fifty miles. This is the

**ECCENTRICITIES
OF THE
CAUTO RIVER.**

largest river in the island, but at its mouth is a treacherous bar that was shifted in 1616 by a heavy flood, imprisoning many vessels, including a Spanish man-of-war, all of which had to be abandoned. Rivers which are navigable for a few miles flow into the bay of Matanzas, Sagua and Nuevitas. The Maximo, emptying into Savinal bay, is historically interesting because it is supposed that at its mouth Columbus disembarked October 27, 1492.

There are few lakes in Cuba. Most of these lie near the coast in close proximity to the great marshes or everglades, but some are inclosed among the high hills of the central chain. The largest of these is Ariguanabo, mentioned heretofore. Nestled among the neighboring ridges, it has a surface of about six square miles and a depth of thirty feet. It contains fish in large numbers. Other lakes there are in the cienagas of the south coast, torrid quagmires hidden away from everything except the burning sun, the tropical vegetation and the loathsome alligators and crocodiles and known only to the few Cubans who dwell in the vicinity.

The cultivable land of the island, covered with the rich, productive soil which, under the stimulus of the southern sun and ample rainfall, yields the most plentiful and varied products, is mostly found in the eroded depressions and rolling slopes worn from the mountain chains. As these low lands compose four-fifths of the area of Cuba, it is readily seen how incalculable must be its wealth. Except the mountain groups which have been described as forming the island backbone, the surface of the interior, gently undulating, rises only

from eighty to 100 feet above the level of the ocean. The plains largest in extent are three: that occupying the south side of the mountain chain in the province of Pinar del Rio and Havana; that extending from Cardenas to Holguin along the northern slope of the mountains for nearly 400 miles, and the valley of the Cauto, known as the plain of Bayamo.

**GREAT AREA
OF FERTILE
LOWLANDS.**

A myriad of islands, keys, reefs and banks virtually encircle Cuba, forming a screen in front of its coast which causes great inconvenience to navigation and makes portions of the mainland very difficult of access. This screen once passed, protection is afforded and navigation made easy. The reefs are of calcareous origin and have been and are still being built by the coral insects which have served so extensively in constructing the coasts of Cuba proper in many parts. The portions of the coast sheltered by these archipelagoes are generally marshy and covered with a thick growth of mangrove and other tropical swamp vegetation. These marshy tracts are known by the general name of *cienaga*. The *Cienaga de Zapata* or shoe-shaped marsh on the south coast, is one of the largest and most characteristic of these swamps. It has a length of more than sixty miles, is perfectly flat and almost on a level with the sea. The contest between sea and land is here marked at present by victories and defeats in about equal proportion, but in the end, owing to the barrier off this part of the coast, the land must gain by means of its own detritus and with the aid of its tireless coral allies. The stagnant waters of the marsh are in places hedged in by sandy breakwaters. The currentless channels of former rivers are observed here and there among the mangrove thickets, which also are dotted by many lakes, some covered with leaves of myriad lilies and others reflecting the fiery heat of the tropical sun. In some spots the ground is firm enough to support a clump of trees, but most of the surface consists of quagmires or boggy expanses, inaccessible to man or beast. The entire coast line from Cienfuegos westward to Punta de Cartas is a continuation of this great swamp.

**MIASMATIC
SWAMPS OF
GREAT SIZE.**

Where the shore is not hedged about by natural breakwaters the outline presented is high and bold, furnishing many capacious, well-

protected harbors with narrow entrances easy of defense. Among the best harbors of the north coast are the bays of Bahía Honda, Cabanas, Mariel, Havana, Matanzas, Jibara, Nipe and Baracoa. Those on the south are Guantanamo, Santiago de Cuba, Trinidad and Cienfuegos.

Communication throughout the island of Cuba has been better than that in Puerto Rico and still by no means sufficient. Most of the roads are mere trails, quite impassable in the rainy season. There is a famous wagon road called the Camino Central or the central road, which runs all the way from Havana to Santiago. During years of insurrection, however, much of it has been permitted to fall into disuse so that it will have to be thoroughly repaired through the central portion of its course before it is available for traffic. It is not such a military road as that which crosses the island of Puerto Rico, the Spanish government in Cuba preferring to depend upon steamship communication between the ports. There are, however, in the island of Cuba about 200 miles of paved highways constructed at the expense of the government, which means that they have been paid for by taxation upon the Cubans, and that not more than half of the sum purporting to be expended on them has gone into their construction, the remainder going to enrich the Spanish authorities.

Within the cities, carriages in Cuba are like carriages elsewhere, but throughout the country the universal passenger vehicle is the volante. This consists of a two-seated carriage hung rather low by leather straps from the axle of two very large wheels and having shafts some thirteen feet long. The horse in the shafts is led by a postilion, whose horse is also harnessed to the carriage with traces. In the case of a long and rough journey a third horse is harnessed on the other side of the shaft in the same manner. This carriage is extremely comfortable to travel in and the great height of the wheels and their distance apart prevent all danger of turning over, a very desirable quality when considered with reference to the condition of most of the roads in the interior. Merchandise when not sent by rail is usually transported by heavy carts drawn by oxen or mules. Pack mules are employed where the roads cannot be used by the carts.

During the progress of the Cuban insurrection and our own war



OCEAN DRIVE TO THE BELLAMAR CAVES.

From the balcony of the Hotel Bellamar, Cuba, to the beautiful caves of Bellamar, the carriage road offers many scenes of beauty, as described in this book. The picture shows the beginning of the road, just within the city.



IN THE BELLAMAR CAVES, ISLAND OF CUBA.

These beautiful caverns in the province of Matanzas, not far from the city of the same name, are among the most notable of the scenic beauties of Cuba. They are very extensive, and amply repay a visit.

with Spain, many different maps have been made and circulated. It is to be regretted that thousands of these are utterly worthless and misleading in the stories they tell regarding the railways of Cuba. With an energy worthy of a better cause and an ease to be envied by the engineers, the artists in map construction have constructed for the island an elaborate system of railways ramifying into every part of the country where they ought to be, but a great many parts where they are not. Every wagon road and every ancient survey which they have found marked on any map they have changed into railways by a stroke of the graver's tool. It is to be regretted that such misleading information has been circulated so widely, for the possessor of a map rarely stops to question its authenticity when a quick reference is necessary.

The map of Cuba which accompanies this volume is exactly correct in the railways it includes, and there are none whatever other than those shown on this map, except numerous private roads which have been built by the sugar planters to connect their estates to the main line. There is no railway what-
**CORRECT RAILWAY
MAP OF CUBA
HEREWITH.**
ever connecting the eastern and western ends of the island. Even the railway across the island at the trocha from Jucaro to Moron was only a military work and not operated for passengers. The total of railway lines of Cuba comprises about 1,000 miles of track. Eventually, doubtless, there will be continuous railway communication from Pinar del Rio to Santiago de Cuba, approximately following the axis of the island and continuing beyond its present terminus at Santa Clara through Santo Espiritu, Puerto Principe, Victoria de las Tunas and Holguin, throwing off branches to all important harbors and towns not touched by the main line.

Communication between the ports of the island of Cuba has been maintained by two lines of steamers, one on the north and one on the south. Boats of the former ply with regularity between Havana and Matanzas, Cardenas, Sagua la Grande, Caibarien and Nuevitas, calling at Guantanamo bay and making Santiago the terminal point. The south coast line, with excellent boats, has its western terminus at Batabano and calls at Cienfuegos, Trinidad, Tunas, Manzanillo and Santiago. Another line runs from Havana to Bahia Honda, and one

from Batabano to Nueva Gerona, on the Isle of Pines. Spanish, French, German and American lines of steamers have reached Havana from the European ports and from New York and New Orleans.

The telegraph system in the island, like that of Puerto Rico, extends to all the principal towns and villages and is in the hands of the government. Cuba is connected by submarine cables with the rest of the world by three distinct lines and there was no time during the war when communication between the Madrid government and Havana was interrupted.

The Isle of Pines is no doubt a permanent possession of the United States, whatever may be the ultimate disposition of Cuba. The treaty of peace with Spain ceded it directly to our government. This island, which lies some sixty miles directly south of Batabano, and, consequently, just south of the city of Havana, is nearly one-third the size of Puerto Rico. It is about thirty-five miles from north to south and a little more than that from east to west at its greatest extent, with a total area, not including the great bay to the west, of about 1,000 square miles. The population is about 2,000. Communication has been kept up with Cuba by steamers from the port of Batabano to Nueva Gerona, on the north coast, the principal town of the island. This town was founded in 1853 and now has some 900 inhabitants. The village of Santa Fe, fourteen miles distant, is much frequented on account of its wonderful hot springs.

The Isle of Pines consists in reality of two islands, separated by a tidal swamp. Toward the eastern end of this swamp, a few rocky ledges, flush with the water, have been utilized to construct a stone causeway between the two sections. These present a marked contrast, that on the north being wooded and mountainous, its soil extremely fertile, while the southern section is low, rocky and barren. The principal products are marble, many beautiful varieties of which exist in large quantities, rock crystal, tortoise shells, pine and turpentine, cedar, mahogany, and other valuable woods. There are also deposits of silver, mercury and iron.

Under the Spanish regime, this island has been used as a penal settlement and colonization has been discouraged. It was here that

the case of Evangelina Cisneros began to attract attention. The northern half of the island is exceedingly healthful and at times has been used as a sanitarium for Spanish soldiers, broken in health in Cuba. It is believed that permanent occupation by the Americans will develop it rapidly. Surveys are being made at the present time, which have resulted in finding two harbors which can be improved without difficulty, so that access can be had to them by vessels of any draft. The Isle of Pines will be our nearest outpost to the Nicaragua canal and should prove of great value as a naval station.

RESORT AND SAN-
ITARIUM FOR
SICK SOLDIERS.

Since the American occupation of Cuba two reports have been made to the United States Government by army officers sent to make investigations of the resources of the Isle of Pines. Each report has verified the opinions of its value. It is probable that the commerce between the island and Cuba will be diverted to another port than Batabano. The channel from Nueva Serona to Batabano is shallow and difficult, but there is a channel of four fathoms depth all the way from the island to Coloma, a port on the south side of the province of Pinar del Rio, just south of the city of the same name.

CHAPTER XLI.

COMMERCIAL REORGANIZATION OF CUBA.

Condition of Cuba at the Close of the War—How the Island Is to Be Rehabilitated—The Cubans a Peaceful People—Unjust Judgments Upon Cubans by American Soldiers—The Cuban in War and in Peace—The Professional Men of Havana—Revision of the Penal Code—Hardships of the Spanish Code in Its Original Form—Sanitation of the City—American Experts to Solve the Problem—Influx of Americans to Havana—Adventurers and Speculators—An Effort to Settle Commercial Conditions—Important Committees Appointed—Change of Methods of the Railways—Administration of the Government Telegraph Lines.

THE reorganization of peace and prosperity in the island of Cuba is a problem which should not be difficult of solution in an island where nature has such marvelous recuperative power. Devastated as were the fields and plantations which had been overrun by Spanish and insurgent armies, it seemed to the casual observer a year ago that a decade would be required to obliterate the signs of ruin. It will indeed require many years to repopulate the island where nearly one-fifth the citizens have died from starvation and suffering within the last three years. It will require many years to clear away the ruined plantation houses and sugar mills destroyed by marauders. But so far as the productive capacity of the country is concerned, there is reason to believe that within two years it will outstrip all its previous records, beginning a new era of prosperity amazing in its proportions. The climate and nature's bounty will be the greatest contributor to this condition. Next will come the prompt and generous introduction of American capital and American enterprise, which are already beginning to make themselves felt. Finally will come the labor of the Cubans, applied to the latent resources of the island.

The Cubans have wanted nothing so much as peace. They are by no means as restless, aggressive and difficult to control as the

people of the South and Central American republics. The latter races come from a mixture of Spanish and aboriginal Indian blood. The Cuban people are a mixture of Spanish and African negro blood, this mixture, of course, not occurring in every individual, but appearing in every class and every phase of life sufficiently to be reckoned with as a factor. Out of these different combinations come different characteristics, and I have no fear that the history of Cuba will be marred by the succession of revolutions and governmental fiascos that have retarded prosperity in our sister republics. The Cuban did not revolt against Spanish rule until driven to it by desperation. Once brought to the belief that he might as well die fighting the oppressor as from oppression itself, he fought stolidly and steadily until the American intervention came to his relief.

**A GLANCE AT
THE CHARACTER
OF THE CUBANS**

I have a word to say for the Cuban in respect to the judgments formed upon him by the American soldiers in our late war. The Cuban army was a distinctly inferior body, poorly equipped, poorly organized and poorly fed. Its soldiers were by no means such soldiers as those in our own ranks. For three years they have been carrying on a guerilla warfare with little ammunition, few weapons, no commissary whatever, often no food, and no clothing but rags. They have marched and starved and fought and starved with equal stolidity.

The only valid excuse which the United States had to enter war with Spain, was to bring peace and relief to a distracted country at our doors and to aid a struggling people in their effort to free themselves from the yoke of oppression. It was this spirit which was presumed to stimulate the American volunteer when he enlisted and went to war. If the Cuban soldier had been the equal of the American mentally and physically, if he had been as well armed, well clothed and well fed, he would not have needed our aid. It was because he was distinctly an inferior that we gave our assistance. Then came a grievous thing. When the American soldier reached Cuba, presumably knowing all these things and stimulated by them, he looked about him and saw the Cuban.

**WHY WE WENT
TO WAR
WITH SPAIN.**

"The Cuban is our inferior," he said; "he is ragged, he is dirty, he

is half-starved and steals our food whenever he can get it; he will not work and he will not fight when we tell him to. The Cuban is no good."

For myself I am unable to hold the Cuban to blame for any of these things. It is because they were true to a given extent that we went to help them. Sometimes the Cuban ran, instead of fighting. I have known a Cuban force to enter a general engagement with the Spanish with just five rounds of ammunition in the cartridge belts. I fail to see what they should have done instead of running after they fired all of these. I am impelled to the belief that in like circumstances I might have reserved my fire and run first.

It is true that the Cuban troops in many cases proved of little military value to the American army. But it is not hard to understand why an exhausted, ragged, hungry force that had been fighting for three years and now saw a strong, fresh army come to its relief, should, in an actual revulsion of feeling, lapse from their energy and let the re-enforcements do all the work, even to save their freedom. They were hungry and they stole food; they were proud and they would not build roads and dig ditches.

If we are to be successful in our dealings with alien people who are coming under our domination, it is necessary for us to study them, judge them and rule them by methods which fit them instead of those which appeal to us. The Cubans are what they are because of their centuries of life under the Spanish yoke and the demoralizing tutelage of Spanish methods. We should be cautious of shallow judgments against them.

The progress of reorganization in Cuba has been an interesting one. The backbone of the revolution was the professional class of Havana, and the other cities. Nearly all the doctors, lawyers and other professional men are Cubans. The business men are mainly Spaniards. The intellectual life of Havana is Cuban. The Spaniards are traders. They are very keen and successful merchants and have a certain contempt for the "non-producers," as they call the professional men. These professional men nearly all sympathized with the insurgent cause. Some of them were very open in their sympathies and joined the armies;

many remained at home and contributed. Nearly all had relatives and friends in the Cuban army. The bar of Havana is a very brilliant one. Many of the leading members were educated at Havana and in the United States or in Europe. Their attainments are such that they would attract attention in any intellectual American city. What is said of lawyers may be said with the same truth of the doctors. Some of the Havana physicians have a world-wide reputation. The medical men are a credit to the city. For a hundred years they have cried out against the evils of bad sanitation without avail, and the fact that Havana is one of the sickliest cities in the world is no reflection on its brilliant and capable medical fraternity.

When the American officers first appeared to arrange for the evacuation of the island they got a very cool reception. The Cubans were very bitter in their expressions. They had only sneers for our soldiers. They made no concealment of the fact that they looked upon them as a species of international thieves, who had come to steal before their open eyes the fruits of their victory. They were infinitely more bitter and even insulting than the Spaniards. The Spaniard was a conquered foe, who had but little to say. He had screwed up his face for a dose of medicine and was willing to take it. The Cuban considered himself a cruelly wronged man. The commission afforded him no comfort.

It was at this time that some other influence began making an impression on the Cuban mind. The first thing that was asked of these ardent professional men was that they assist the gentlemen sent down by the attorney-general from Washington to translate the penal code of the island. Their answer was quick and defiant. They were Cuban patriots and it should never be said by their children or children's children that they had assisted in the enslavement of the people who had fought so heroically and tirelessly for the priceless boon of liberty. Then they discovered that to translate a criminal code into English did not imply a threat of slavery, and the service of several of the most eminent lawyers of Havana was enlisted to do the work.

**CUBANS RESENT
AMERICANS IN
CIVIL AFFAIRS.**

In dealing with the Cuban situation one of the important considerations which must be constantly borne in mind is the fact that only one-fifth of the residents can read or write. The others not only have

the ignorance of illiteracy, but in most cases they do not associate with those who read or write, and the dissemination of classified intelligence is naturally a very slow matter. The people comprised in this illiterate four-fifths understand that under Spanish rule they had but few rights, but they have no knowledge of what their rights should be now or will be under a republic or a wise liberal government. Most of them naturally expect an extension of personal liberties, but have no ideas as to what changes are necessary in the laws to define and establish their legitimate rights as citizens. Of the vast majority who are illiterate very few have any knowledge of what elections mean. The ignorant Cubans seem to have some vague notion that the more intelligent will furnish some sort of a government that will be more acceptable than the one now perishing. Under the Spanish law a person charged with a crime is guilty until proved innocent. Under the Spanish law there is no habeas corpus.

The Spanish penal code was enacted by royal decree for Cuba and Puerto Rico, and went into effect in 1879, being a revision of the code of 1870. While the criminal code is intended to provide for punishment for all crimes, it does not furnish the only laws under which a man may be declared guilty, convicted and punished. There are special laws—"leyes especiales"—which were placed upon the statute books in various ways. They may have been an afterthought of the king or of the cortes. They may have been decreed and promulgated by the governor-general or by the municipal authorities. When an old law is found unsuitable and a new one enacted, by royal decree or otherwise, no one has taken the trouble to repeal the other laws. In 1871, by decree, the children born of slave parents were to be free, and in 1880 slavery was abolished; but the special laws for the punishment of slaves are still carried on the statute books. The most powerful law is one issued by the king with the advice of the cabinet, but when it conflicts with a royal order issued by the minister in the king's name the judge can select whichever one he sees fit to use.

When a person is arrested he is put in prison and may remain there seventy-two hours before anything is done with the case. Then or at any time previous that may be selected, he is taken before the official known as the judge of instruction. When first arrested the prisoner is a

"detendo." If the judge of instruction decides that there is sufficient instruction to hold him he becomes a "procesados." He is not made acquainted with the evidence against him. It may or may not be given in court. If held he is sent back to prison, and it is at the pleasure of the officials as to when he shall have trial.

Heretofore when a person has been arrested there has been a race between the man who made the arrest, the jailer and the judge of instruction as to who could first get to the man's friends. If these friends had money the one who got there first took the money and the prisoner was released. If the crime was serious his first duty was to put the prosecuting witness out of the way. Sometimes he had to do murder to accomplish this, and there were men who made a profession of disposing of obnoxious witnesses. Their trade was assassination. They worked for a very low rate.

**THE PRISONER
IN THE
SPANISH CODE.**

If a prisoner under Cuban law is so fortunate as to get a trial the prejudice of the court is against him. He is deemed guilty and must prove that he is innocent. The judge has possession of all evidence on both sides from the start. Under the law imbeciles and lunatics are exempt. If the prisoner is guilty of one of the graver crimes he is confined in an asylum, where he must remain until released by the order of the magistrate. If guilty of a lesser crime he is remanded to his home to be cared for. The terms "graver" and "lesser crimes" are used because in the Spanish code there is no criminal classification of crimes and misdemeanors. Crimes are classified as grave and lesser crimes, and graded according to the punishments. If while a prisoner is suffering punishment by imprisonment for a lesser crime he commits a graver one, he is tried for the graver crime and punished for it. The punishment for the lesser crime comes afterward.

Minors 9 years of age or under are exempt from punishment. A minor over the age of 9 and under 15 years is also exempt, unless he shall have arrived at the "age of discernment," when he may be punished at the discretion of the magistrate. If the magistrate declares him irresponsible he must be remanded to the care of his family or to a benevolent institution.

Under the code, one who acts in defense of his person or his rights,

or in defense of the rights of his spouse, his ancestors, his descendants, his brother or his adopted or blood relations, is exempt. A slave who defends his master is exempt. So, also, is a gratuitously emancipated freedman who defends his master or his master's spouse. Even a stranger may be protected by the use of violence and the protector be exempt from punishment. One who to escape an injury does an act causing damage is exempt, but the impending injury must be real and not fancied and the damages which would have resulted from the injury averted must exceed the damages caused by the efforts to escape. One who is performing a lawful act and accidentally causes damages is immune from punishment. One who acts under compulsion or the impulse of irresistible force is exempt.

The code has something which pretty nearly comprehends the plea of temporary insanity. It exempts from punishment one who commits an overt act under the impulse of ungovernable fear and makes a criminal an object of mercy if he acts in a paroxysm of anger. The law will pardon one who acts in fulfillment of duty or who acts in virtue of obedience to another. But it does not attempt to describe what are proper "duties" to fulfill or when "another" has a right to command obedience to the extent of causing crimes.

In the Spanish code is a long list of "extenuating circumstances." It is an extenuating circumstance to be under the age of 18 years, to commit a crime without intent, to act under threat or when avenging a wrong done to self or spouse. It is an extenuating circumstance to be intoxicated when committing a crime, providing it is not the habit of the person to be intoxicated, or providing the intoxicated condition was not acquired after the crime had been planned. It is legal to make a plea for mercy, citing that the accused acted under powerful excitement.

**EXTENUATING
CIRCUMSTANCES
IN THE LAW.**

The code names twenty-six kinds of crimes which must be considered as aggravated offenses. A few of these are: Crimes against relatives up to the fourth degree; crimes against patrons and crimes that constitute treachery to patrons and to persons who had special reasons for trusting the criminal; crimes for price, recompense or reward are particularly bad. This covers the deeds of the *Nañigos*, who are professional assassins and put persons out of the world for price.

The crimes are also considered to have aggravating circumstances if accompanied by fire, heavy damages or explosions; if premeditated or if fraud is used in the commission. It is considered especially reprehensible if the offender takes advantage of greatly superior physical strength or adds to the natural consequences of his misdeeds ignominy and humiliation to the victim. It is also especially offensive in the mind of the Cuban judge to commit a crime in a lonely or a sacred place.

The sanitation of Havana was a matter demanding prompt settlement as imperatively as any other feature of reorganization. To advise upon the sanitary needs of the city, Colonel George E. Waring was sent to Cuba by Secretary Alger. After an exhaustive examination of the conditions, Colonel Waring returned to the United States to make his report, and shortly after reaching New York city died from yellow fever contracted in Havana. His labor, however, was by no means lost. He evolved a plan which no doubt will be adopted for execution as rapidly as possible, and it is to be hoped that yellow fever will be eternally obliterated thereby.

He was not the first who had studied the subject of the disposal of the city's sewage. The plan favored for years by the United States marine hospital surgeons in Havana, was to cut a canal from the north-eastern extremity of the harbor to the sea, through which the waters of the bay could be drained. With two openings thus provided, and the Gulf Stream and tide to scour the harbor, it was believed that all desired results would be obtained. Engineers in other reports recommend a great tunnel into which all sewers could empty. This was to have its exit in the surf 2,000 yards east of Morro castle.

**TO IMPROVE
SANITATION
IN HAVANA.**

The time element and the great cost of the work barred the tunnel project from consideration by Colonel Waring. Primarily the war department wanted to provide a healthy garrison for its soldiers, rather than to give Havana, free of cost, a perfect system of drainage. The tunnel, its pumps and intercepting sewers, would cost a very large sum, and might use up five years in the building. So Colonel Waring and his staff of engineers turned to the level fields southwest of the city, beyond Jesus del Monte, and made up their minds to put in a surface-sludge system of purification such as the inland cities of England use.

The existing sewers of the city had no part in Colonel Waring's plan. They all empty into the sea or the bay, and the flow is in the direction opposite that his conduits must take. If one wanted to use them he would have hard work finding them. There is no general chart of the city showing them. The plans have been lost, and the only way to establish the existence of a sewer is to dig for it. Looking for an outlet would profit nothing—many of them have no outlets, but are merely blind extended vaults, dug without relation to the other sewers of the city. Jobbery and corruption are at the bottom of the tangle. The few sewers in commission are so badly constructed that half their burden of filth is lost on the way. Four houses of every five are without connections with such sewers as there are. What the subsoil of Havana has stored up in the way of germs and gases passes imagination.

The plane of the city slopes downward to the east, but the gradient is not so steep that it cannot be easily overcome. From the Prado, the backbone of the city, the slope is northward toward the sea or southward to the harbor. The littoral of bay and ocean is practically continuous, and two intercepting sewers at the low level with auxiliary trunk sewers on the slopes would fill the requirements. At the purifying works the stuff would have to be pumped to the surface. Ultimately Havana must have a double system of drainage. Half an hour of rainfall during the day paralyzes all business in the "old town," where most of the business is done. The rains are a distinct benefit to the city just now, flushing the streets and giving them the only cleaning they get.

As early as 1556 the bad sanitary condition of the city of Havana began to worry its people. The residents then were of the opinion that bad water was the cause of a specially severe epidemic. It was decided to bring a portion of the Alemendares river into the city to supply pure drinking water. The construction of this ditch occupied twenty-five years, it being completed in 1591; but it was unfit to use.

The first ravage of yellow fever was in 1648, when the fleet of Don Juan Junjados appeared in the harbor of Havana and remained the greater part of the summer. The epidemic which had come with this fleet had a recrudescence in the following spring, when the authorities estimated that one-third of the population of the island was carried

**VARIOUS EPI-
DEMICS OF
YELLOW FEVER.**

away. The next epidemic was in 1653 and 1654, when the troops seem to have had no special connection with the spread of the disease. There was a recrudescence in 1655, and, strange to say, after this time no more yellow fever was reported for 107 years. This century of immunity caused travelers to give the island a great reputation for salubrity. Europeans came here to reside for their health. In the spring of 1761 a number of political prisoners and soldiers were sent from Vera Cruz to Cuba to do some work on interior fortifications. At the same time nine men-of-war appeared from Cadiz, to remain in Havana for the summer. The prisoners from Vera Cruz brought back the infection. Since that yellow fever has been endemic to Havana. Cholera has been epidemic and has always disappeared after an attack.

The influx of Americans to Havana was rapid after the city was accessible to them. Havana was soon thronged with speculators of all classes. Adventurers found their paradise and all sorts of frauds were attempted in competition with legitimate business enterprises. Real estate, rents and franchises rose in price with startling rapidity. Certain phases of the life reminded one of the boom towns and mining centers of our own west in the bonanza days. Hotels were crowded and at every corner there were men with options worth fortunes, which they were willing to sell dirt cheap.

All the time, however, through the months of the fall and winter, there was going on quietly a great work for the political and commercial redemption of the island. I have spoken of the reform of the penal code that was begun as promptly as possible, but this was not the only one.

The postmaster-general sent an agent to examine into the Cuban postal system. The same department sent a second agent to make a report on the government telegraph of the island. The treasury department sent an agent to report on the customs and tariff taxes and to collate statistics to assist in the remodeling of these taxes. The agricultural department had its agent looking after weather bureaus and crop reports. The navy had an expert getting facts to enable the department to establish a repair station at the proper place. The war department sent men to look up the transportation facilities of the island.

The business men became active and organized a large committee.

with various sub-committees, to make investigations of the industries of the island. The organization had no politics and no favored nationality, there being Cubans, Spaniards, Americans, Germans and Englishmen in the list. Cuba was unique in having no agencies that report on commercial credits and yet commercial credit was essential for the restoration of prosperity. Many of the sugar planters were bankrupt. Many need assistance now and will need it for several years. Some need help to replace the large sugar mills destroyed during the war. Havana has locked up in private safes a great deal of money that might be used for this purpose. Other cities are likewise in position to give assistance. In Cienfuegos, it is stated, one man has \$800,000 in yellow doubloons locked up in a safe. The surplus money of the island is hoarded.

It is difficult for the owners of this money to make safe loans. They know that certain plantations have been partly destroyed, but they do not know their real physical condition. The sugar committee will make a report on the entire sugar situation. After proper request has been made it will investigate any plantation and tell of the financial condition of the owner and the physical condition of the plantation. It will tell what he can do in his present state and what he can do if provided with money. Thus each man in the sugar business will come to have a commercial rating. The report of necessity must be honest, for the men interested in both ends of the deal are making the report. The men who have the money to loan will be there, as well as the men who want the money.

The people who were clamoring to know what the political future of Cuba was to be were told that this would be a good thing to do while they were waiting to find out. They were told that they were in a commercially anemic condition and a physical state of prostration. They were told that with their fields ragged with weeds and their storehouses empty there were things to be done apart from politics, and until they were done Cuba could have no individual political life, no matter what might be decided by men and put on paper.

The sugar committee will not complete its work when it has classified, so to speak, the credits of industrially decrepit Cuba. In passing it

should be said that it is the growers of sugar, tobacco and other products that need assistance. The factor, manufacturer and commercial men in the city are still strong financially. The committee hardly will have finished the first part of its task when the civil authorities will be seeking advice as to the needs of the island as to taxes and other matters. The United States government is now posing itself that it may deal with the situation, but these sugar men know what the island wants. It is not certain that the United States will give them what they require, but it is certain that the United States will give their requests consideration and be instructed by what they have to say. A special sub-committee of the sugar committee will prepare a lengthy report on the subject.

The tobacco committee will undertake work of similar scope and magnitude. Its work will not be so extensive, as it deals with an interest of only one-half the magnitude; but, on the other hand, it will have more delicate problems to deal with. The Cuban tobacco grower and the manufacturer want to keep the American tobacco leaf out of Havana. They deem that essential to the integrity of their manufactured goods and are prepared to make a strenuous fight on this point. At the same time, after thinking it over, they decided that they did not know whether the American tobacco man wanted to come into the Havana market. If he does they want to fight him. If he does not they want to keep still. Therefore they are finding out the facts. It is not politics. It is business. It affects the rehabilitation of the island.

**CREDIT TO
PLANTATION
OWNERS.**

It is pointed to with pride by the merchants in Havana that during the long struggle for supremacy in the island there was not a large financial failure in Havana, and perhaps none in any of the larger cities. None of the important commercial houses went down. The explanation given is that the commerce of Havana is established on a cash basis. If a man or a firm has a \$500,000 business he has \$500,000 in cash. The banks do not make a practice of giving lines of discount. It is done, of course, in special cases, and to some concerns, but it is not the financial custom of the city. Neither is it the practice to pay with notes or to allow long time on local commercial transactions. In this respect it is said to differ from most countries of the south. If a Havana

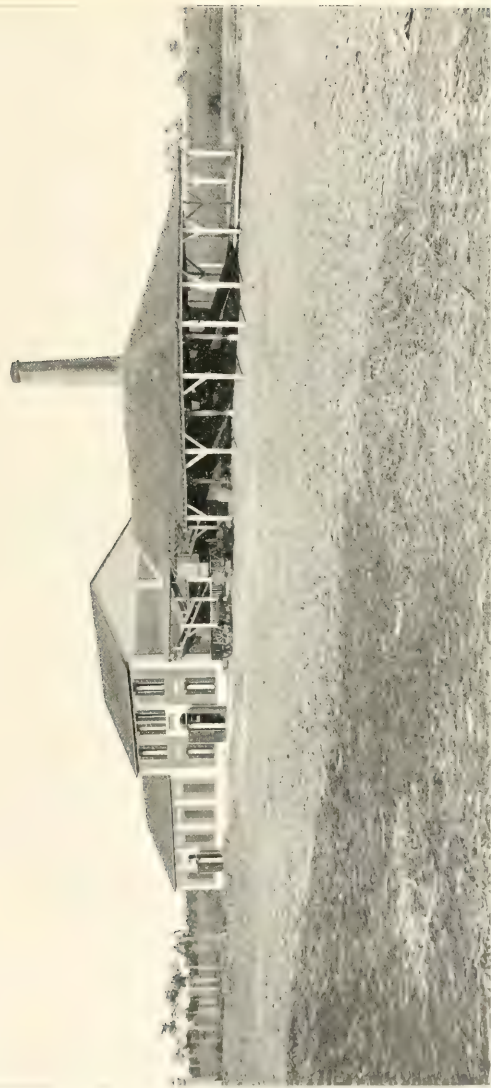
house purchases a lot of tobacco from a plantation cash down is paid. If a sale is made to a local house it is a cash transaction. When goods are sold to New York or London thirty or sixty days is given. Although the commercial men are inclined to deny it, perhaps it is true that long credits are given to South American houses. The tobacco trade with Buenos Ayres is very large and the South American dealers are apt to require long credits.

Another Americanizing influence will be the change in the business methods of the railroads. As the United States army will insist upon doing business in the English language it will also insist upon the business methods being similar to those with which Americans are familiar. Another thing which the Spanish government will turn over to the United States will be a government telegraph system. All the telegraph lines on the island are owned and operated by the government. No one seems to know just how extensive this system is. It is certainly in bad condition. Many of the lines are down, and even the poles have been cut along many miles of the system. The same wires are used by

**CRUDE RAILWAY
AND TELEGRAPH
METHODS.**

the railroads for the needs of the train dispatcher and the operations of the road, but the railroad is not permitted to send commercial messages. The railroad is not even permitted to wire about the handling of freight unless it concerns the running of the train and the direct handling of the cars. In some few cases the government telegraph lines run across the country.

The United States has employed an agent to inspect these telegraph lines, and he will make a report upon which will probably be based rules for their future operation. As at present conducted the lines are under the direction of the postal department. With the exception of Havana and a few of the larger cities the lines do not run into the postoffices, but the telegraph office is at the railroad station. The government operator also attends to railroad work. Few of these are very efficient, and in some of the offices are to be noticed large and cumbrous mechanisms for printing the messages by the Morse code on slips of paper, as was the original custom in all telegraph offices. Between the more important points there are several wires, but in most cases one line straggles along the railroad. It is strung on shaky, low poles, sometimes not more than



SUGAR MILL NEAR CUBA, ISLAND OF CUBA.

This is one of the largest mills of Cuba, though by no means one of the largest. Here the cane is passed through the crushers and the sugar is prepared for shipment in its crude state. The field is strewn with dried cane.



PASSENGER BOAT LANDING IN THE HARBOR OF HAVANA

Although the docks of Havana are of ample size with sufficient depth of water, yet as a sanitary precaution vessels avoid lying at the wharves because of fear of infection. Passengers must come ashore in small boats, and the fleet here visible is characteristic of the harbor.

three inches in diameter. If a steer rubs his neck vigorously against one of them he is apt to put the whole line out of service.

There will be two ways for the United States to take charge of these telegraph lines, and it is very likely that both will be used. The signal corps could take charge of these lines for military purposes. The other way will be for the postal authorities to take charge of these lines and establish with the postal system a regular telegraphic mail service, as has often been proposed for the United States.

The general commercial conditions thus outlined as existing in Havana are those which the American investor will have to meet if he seeks a new field in Cuba. The man who can adapt himself to local conditions, yielding to them when necessary and taking advantage of his own abilities and capital, will find many an opportunity yet remaining in the island metropolis.

CHAPTER XLII.

THE SUGAR AND TOBACCO INDUSTRIES.

Cuba's Wealth in the Soil—The Beginning of Sugar Culture—Disastrous Effect of the Cuban Revolution upon the Raising of Sugar and Tobacco—A Sugar Plantation and Its Equipment—How the Sugar Mill Is Operated—The Purging-House and Its Function—Processes of Extracting Syrup from Cane and Preparing Sugar for Market—Various Species of Cane Grown in Cuba—The Use of the Machete—Sugar from the Cane to the Table—Superiority of Cuban Tobacco—Necessity of Keeping American Tobacco Out of Havana—The Tariff and the Cigar Trade—Condition of the Tobacco Industry at the Present Time—Volume of the Crop Under Normal Conditions.

THE source of Cuba's greatest wealth is the wonderful fertility of its soil. It is estimated that the island has 35,000,000 acres of land, of which more than 10,000,000 are still virgin forest. Certainly not more than half of the island has been utilized in any way by industry and some estimates allege that at least 20,000,000 acres await the application of labor and capital.

The first sugar plantation was established in 1595, but the industry did not assume prime importance until the present century. In addition to the burden of heavy taxation, the trade has of late years suffered severely from the competition of European beet sugar as well as the internal disorders of the island. The great advantage of sugar growing in Cuba is that the cane reproduces itself without the necessity of re-sowing, for ten, fifteen or twenty years, according to the nature of the soil. The sugar is of superior quality and the proximity of the island to the United States has given it a great advantage.

The yield of sugar in Cuba in 1894-95 was 1,040,000 tons, with an estimated addition of 400,000 tons of molasses and an unknown quantity of rum. Under the influence of the insurrection which began in February, 1895, the quantity was reduced in the next year to 225,000 tons. This is an evidence of the devastating effect of the Cuban revolution upon the prosperity of the island.

EFFECT OF INSUR-
RECTION ON THE
SUGAR CROP.

The greatest sugar estates lie in the Vuelta Arriba, the region of the famous red earth, which includes parts of the provinces of Havana, Matanzas and Santa Clara. The province of Santiago de Cuba also contains many sugar plantations.

It is hardly possible to describe a sugar plantation as it is to-day, for many of them are but wrecks of their former greatness. But the great sugar estate as it was before the war and as it will be again, is an enterprise of exceeding interest. The imposing scale of operations on such a plantation imparted a character of barbaric regal state to the life led there. These great estates, called in Spanish phrase *ingenios*, have been the source of enormous wealth to their owners. These *ingenios* vary in size from five hundred to ten thousand acres, though the results of their crops are not always in proportion to the number of their acres, that depending more particularly upon the nature of the soil of the particular locality in which they are situated, and the degree of intelligence and amount of labor with which they are worked. Each one of the *ingenios* is, in some degree, like a small village, or, as with the larger ones, quite a town, in which are substantial edifices, numerous dwellings, and expensive machinery, together with a large number of inhabitants, the different officials necessary for their government and management representing the civil officers, except with perhaps greater power.

The buildings upon a first-class sugar estate generally include a plantation-house, which, from its size, style and cost, might sometimes be called a palace, some of them having in addition to numerous other conveniences, small chapels in which to celebrate the religious services of the estate. The important members of the operating staff are numerous on a large plantation. Among others there is the **ADMINISTRADOR**, who is charged with the care and management of the estate in the absence of the owner. There is also the **MAYORAL**, as he is called, the chief of the negro laborers, whose business it is to follow the laborers to the field, to see that they do their work properly, and that sufficient amount of cane is cut to keep the mill constantly supplied with material to grind; in fact he has a general supervision of all the agricultural duties of the estate, receiving his orders only from the owner or ad-

**PLANTATION
HOUSE AND
ADMINISTRATION.**

ministrador, as the case may be. The mayorales are generally very ordinary men, of no education, the intelligence they possess being simply that gained by long experience in this kind of business. The maquinista, or engineer, is really the most important man upon the place, as upon him depend the grinding of the cane and the care of the mill and its machinery.

The most important of all the buildings is, of course, the sugar-mill, which consists of the engine-house, where is all the machinery and power for grinding, boiling and working the cane and juice, and the purging and drying-houses. The engine-house is generally an extremely large roof, supported by pillars and posts, and entirely open on all sides

**PLANTATIONS,
SUGAR-MILLS
AND OUTFITS.**

—in fact nothing more than a well constructed shed to keep off the sun and rain, the floor being mostly paved with brick, and the stairways leading from one portion of the building to another being of solid stone.

One of these mills of the first class is a very handsome affair, everything about it, the engines and the machinery, being kept in the most scrupulously clean order.

The purging-house is generally two stories high and of great length. The floor of the upper story is simply a series of strong frames, with apertures for placing in them the funnel-shaped cylinders of tin or sheet-iron, into which is put the molasses to drain into troughs beneath. One side of this house is open, in order to permit the large boxes upon wheels, into which are put the forms of sugar, to be run in and out conveniently. In these boxes, which are immensely large, the sugar in forms is broken up and exposed to the air and sun, for the purpose of thoroughly drying it.

The number of these cylinders is something wonderful, there being in some of the houses as many as twenty thousand. Beneath the upper floor are a number of troughs, each trough having a slant to a main trough. Over the minor troughs are the mouths of the funnels, which permit the molasses draining from the pans of sugar above to run into the troughs, which again convey it to large vats or hogsheads, each of which holds from twelve to fifteen hundred gallons. It is in this process that they make the distinction of the different sugars—blanco,

or white; quebrado, or broken; and the common, dark-colored sugar called cucurucho.

In making these three qualities of sugar, a layer of moist earth or clay is placed upon the top of the pans of crystallized syrup, from which the moisture, draining constantly through, carries off all the imperfections, leaving the pans full of dry sugar in the form of solid cases, and generally of three colors; that nearest the top, pure white; next below that, discolored; and at the bottom of that, the moist or dark colored.

**MAKING THE
THREE QUALITIES
OF SUGAR.**

If, however, it is desired to make only a muscovado sugar, which is of a rich, brown color, and does not require the same time or pains as the finer qualities, the syrup is simply put in the large hogsheads before described, and allowed to drain off in the natural way without the process of "claying" it, as it is called. This, of course, makes more sugar of an average inferior grade, which weighs more, having the molasses in it; and this is the sugar generally preferred by sugar refiners.

It is calculated that to every 1,000 boxes of sugar, consisting of 400 pounds each, it is necessary to have from fifty to seventy-five hands; for, of course, the greater supply of labor there is, the better are the chances of making the sugar of superior quality. Of these laborers the larger proportion are negroes.

Of the cane itself there are several species grown in Cuba. The criolla or native cane is the oldest known, being that brought to Spain by Columbus on his second voyage from the Canaries, but is thin, poor and not very juicy. Otaheite cane, which is large, thick, and preferred by the sugarmakers, was introduced into the island in 1795. The cristallina, last introduced, and cultivated by many in preference to the latter, is very prolific. The height attained by the cane, the length of joint, the color and many other particulars vary with different species, the character of the soil and the mode of culture adopted. The stems are divided by joints into short lengths, from each joint of which long, narrow leaves sprout. The outer part of the cane is hard and brittle, but the inner consists of a soft pith containing the sweet juice.

The cane is propagated by slips or cuttings, planting taking place

in the intervals of the rainy season, which begins regularly in June and lasts until October or November. The cutting takes place immediately

**HOW SUGAR-CANE
IS
PROPAGATED.**

after the Christmas holidays and sometimes continues as late as May. When the cane is ripe for cutting, the hands proceed to the field armed with the same machetes that have proven such effective weapons in insurrection. These are knives of peculiar construction, something like a butcher's cleaver, without the broadened blade, and very strong and sharp. They cut the cane with the utmost dexterity, and a field in the cutting season presents a most picturesque sight. The cane is carted to the mill and deposited under the shed where other hands throw it upon an endless conductor formed of strips of wood and links of chain, which carries the cane into the jaws of the crushers. Here the juice is completely pressed out, passing in a continuous stream into troughs beneath, while the refuse cane is discharged on the other side to be carried to the furnaces.

The juice as it runs out in the liquid state is an opaque fluid of a dull gray or olive green color. It is quite thick and holds in suspension particles of the cane and refuse, which have to be filtered out. This liquid is so susceptible to fermentation that it is necessary to clarify it immediately. The clarifiers are a large kettle heated by steam and lime is used in the process. From the clarifiers the juice, after settling, is filtered through vats filled nearly up to the top with bone-black. From these filtering vats the material is led to large tanks, and from

**FROM VACUUM
PAN TO
PURGING-HOUSE.**

the tanks again to the vacuum pans. The process of preparing the sugar for market through the successive vacuum pans is complicated and technical. The use of science to insure success in the process is being introduced more and more every year as a substitute for skill without science, as was related in an earlier chapter concerning the sugar centrals of Puerto Rico.

From the last vacuum pan the sugar is discharged into moulds, to be taken to the purging-house described heretofore. The molasses that drains off in the purging-house is afterwards re-boiled and made into a common grade of sugar. The best molasses comes from the muscovado sugar, since it has not passed through so many purifying operations

and therefore has more saccharine matter in it. The sugar being thoroughly dried, sorted and pulverized, now has only to be packed and shipped to some port where vessels can load it to carry it to a refinery for the final processes which prepare it for the table.

Cuba has long been famous for the superiority of its tobacco. Efforts have been made to rival the Cuban tobacco in different parts of the world, but it seems to hold its own as excelling all others. It is grown in greatest abundance in the western part of the island and in some localities in the provinces of Santa Clara and Santiago de Cuba. The first, or Vuelta Abajo region, where the best tobacco on the island is raised, suffered severely from the insurrection. Its ordinary yield is nearly 300,000 bales of 110 pounds each. The export for the last year in which statistics are available, was 240,000 bales and 166,712,000 cigars.

The position of the Cuban tobacco grower, manufacturer and factor is easily stated. They want all tobaccos grown in the United States kept out of the island. The entire exclusion of American tobaccos is so much more important that any other questions that may arise concerning the tobacco commerce are subordinate and trivial by comparison. The grower and the manufacturer care most about this and the factor cares the least. The former are more vitally concerned in the reputation of the Havana tobacco. The factor is less interested, because there would be dealings no matter what the condition of the trade. The Cuban tobacco men claim that in the Vuelta Abajo district is grown the finest tobacco in the world. Tobaccos are grown in other portions of the island in large quantities and of excellent quality, but in the comparatively small district in Pinar del Rio grows the tobacco that is the pride of the Havanese heart. In all cases the growers want to protect the name of all their tobacco, because it sells on its reputation.

**POSITION OF
THE TOBACCO
TRADE.**

The climate of Havana offers conditions that enable the crude tobacco product there to be manufactured under the most favorable circumstances. The air furnishes just the right amount of moisture and the proper amount of heat; in fact, it is said by experts to furnish everything necessary. At other places these conditions may be supplied artificially, but in Havana the leaf slowly and from entirely natural causes reaches the stage where it is to be made into cigars. When it reaches

the table of the roller it is in perfect condition for working. In the finer grades the leaves are as smooth and as pliable as pieces of silk and as easily worked, the finished article being satiny in its fineness. The grower and manufacturer claim that it is this combination of favorable natural conditions for the plant in the field and for the leaf in processes of manufacture that has made the Havana cigar famous. They consider that the reputation of their beloved and profitable cigar would be lost if other tobaccos were sold from here.

Those interested in tobacco are also concerned about the tariff which the United States proposes instituting, but this is not vital either with grower or manufacturer. As it is now, Havana cigars sell in American cities for just double what they retail for in Havana. The duties and taxes are not quite responsible for all this difference, but to a large extent they are. Cigars which gentlemen of Havana like to smoke are in reach of the man of ordinary income, but they are sold for 25 or 30 cents apiece in America. The dealer says that if this duty is cut off it simply means that the American will get his Havana cigars cheaper,

AMERICAN
TARIFF DUTIES
ON TOBACCO.

but the Havana producer will get no more for his goods. If the duty is raised it might serve to exclude his goods, but that is not of much importance to him, as the supply will be less than the demand for a few years on account of the state of the plantations. England, Europe and South America will take his goods at fair prices if America does not want them. He prefers to do business with America as a matter of convenience, but he politely says that the matter rests entirely with America.

If the American duty is not removed there is one change that is desired by the Havana dealers in leaf tobaccos. The United States tariff law now has a differential duty on wrappers and fillers. This, the Cuban claims, is all right so far as Sumatra tobacco is concerned, as it is only imported for use as wrappers. It is even imported into Cuba, to the great disgust of the older houses. The Sumatra tobacco can be purchased without the fillers. Havana tobacco is used in America for wrappers, binders and fillers. The experts say that Havana tobacco can never be assorted so that you can tell where wrappers begin or where fillers end. The American tobacco manufacturer, therefore, can

never tell whether he is to be compelled to pay 35 cents a pound or \$1.85 a pound at the custom house. A tobacco fresh in October may look fit for a wrapper, while in January it may prove only fit for a filler, or, if of good size, may be used as a binder. Thus it is an impossibility properly to describe tobacco destined for shipment to the United States, and the courts are full of protests.

Only one-fifth of a crop has been planted in Cuba this year, and the farmers, being sick and in addition having lost their live stock and implements, are unable to take very good care of it. The tobacco lands are owned in large tracts, called plantations, but they are not planted in large tracts, as the land is rented out, or "raised on shares," as it is called, and the raising of tobacco is therefore really in the hands of small farmers. Tobacco plantations, of course, vary in size as well as do the tracts for the small farmers. A piece of land 160 acres in size may only have a small proportion suitable for tobacco. The soil must be right and water convenient. Irrigation has been successful in certain districts, but is not in general use.

**HOW THE CROP
OF TOBACCO
IS GROWN.**

If the grower takes care of a large tract he employs hands and pays from \$18 to \$25 a month. On some plantations \$30 a month is paid. It takes two men to take care of one acre of tobacco. If the land is owned by the farmer he lives on it. If leased, he lives in a near-by village, but during the season of planting and cutting he lives on the farm, usually in temporary huts or shacks made of bark and palm leaves. Oxen are required to do the plowing. They are more suitable than horses or mules because they stand the climate and the work better. They are needed from April and May until December and January, as planting is commenced in October and carried on until January.

Generally speaking, the size of tracts worked by individual farmers varies from garden patches to ten acres. On most of these the barns and outbuildings have been destroyed. Country life in Cuba is very simple and the wants are few. Had the farmers been able to prepare for the planting, which should be going on now, they would get along very well. If the farmer has work he usually takes good care of his family. He is rarely a drinking man, and then only on feast days. In the time of growing tobacco all the numerous children of his family are

put to work. When the time of packing arrives the women of the household are used. In some parts of the island the women work alongside of the men at all kinds of work. But as the men from these farms went to the war, and were starved or killed, the women, who survived starvation, can scarcely plant the tobacco.

The small farmer can get along very well without his house and household goods. A palm-leaf hut is soon made. But he cannot get along without his plow—although it is a very crude one—his harrow and his two oxen. That is all he needs after he has secured tobacco plants. In the north his plowing would be called the merest tickling of the soil. Some of this soil has been neglected and the first time it is planted it will require a little more than the usual scratching. The tobacco takes from fifty to sixty days to grow. Tobacco planted in October is cut in December. After it is housed it must hang until the stem has lost its moisture and the leaf becomes dry. In this condition it will remain until the moist season commences, when it is taken down and put in bundles. These bundles are piled together in large quantities for fermentation. In this condition it remains about forty days. Then the packing and assorting begins, to be followed by shipment.

Under normal conditions the island raises 650,000 bales of tobacco. The present crop will amount to between 150,000 and 160,000 bales. That for next season will be no larger than for 1898. In other words,

**GREAT VOLUME
OF THE
SMOKERS' CROP.**

there will be a little more than one-fifth of a crop. It is hard to estimate the value of a crop, as the prices of bales run from \$60 to \$110 a bale. Those acquainted with the tobacco-growing districts say that if the farmers are permitted to go on developing the lands under certain and safe conditions the output in the course of a few years will double and perhaps treble.

CHAPTER XLIII.

CUBAN CONDITIONS, RESOURCES AND THE FUTURE.

Colonel Rowan's Second Ride Across Cuba—A Compliment to the Insurgent Administration—Plenty of Cattle Remaining in the Island—Cuban Soldiers and Officers Praised—A Military Commission into Pinar del Rio—Forty Thousand Cubans Dead as a Result of Reconcentration—Experiences of a Lonesome American—A Day on a Cuban Farm—A Hospitable Hostess and a Tempting Breakfast—Cuban Railways in Need of American Methods—The Province of Santiago and Its Conditions—Sugar, Coffee, Cacao and Bananas—Products of the Forest—Iron Ranges Near Santiago—The Industries and Commerce of Cuba—Volume of Exports and Imports—Limitless Possibilities of the "Pearl of the Antilles."

AMERICAN army officers found that their work was not ended in Cuba with the coming of peace. Into their hands was entrusted the reorganization of civic affairs to a degree which they had not experienced among their duties before. They made journeys into the interior to study the condition of the country and the inhabitants, and their inquiries are proving of great value.

Lieutenant-Colonel Andrew S. Rowan finished his second ride across Cuba in October. Six weeks in the saddle, a dog-trot journey from Gibara, the north-shore port of Santiago province, which General Garcia captured as an object lesson to the conqueror of Santiago city, to Pinar del Rio, within scent of the Yucatan channel, left as few marks on the wiry infantryman as a night in a sleeping car gives to a seasoned wanderer. Lieutenant C. F. Parker, Second artillery, who rode mile for mile with him, was worn to a shadow by the unceasing grind of it.

Brown and lean, the gray that comes at peril's touch showing in hair and beard stubble, Rowan looked just the knight errant who, know-

ing little Spanish, would plunge into a wilderness full of Spanish soldiers and bring out a pocket book crammed with topographical notes and statistics of the enemy's weakness and strength.

"General Miles wanted to know what the interior of Cuba was like in the rainy season," so Colonel Rowan began his story. "Late in August he detailed Parker and me to go to Gibara and ride through the island to Pinar del Rio. The condition of the country,

**PURPOSE OF
COLONEL ROWAN'S
GREAT RIDE.**

the topographical features of each district, the practicability of marching infantry and artillery from place to place, the possibility of an overland route from Santiago to Pinar del Rio—these were to be our first studies. Incidentally we were to visit the chief cities of each province and note the condition and strength of their Spanish garrisons and the encampments of Cubans without their walls. More remotely we were to demonstrate that the country districts were not impassable even during the rainy season.

"We left Ponce on the *Gussie* August 31. Four days later we landed at Gibara and got horses for the trip to Santiago. There was a curious mixture of authority in the town—the port in the hands of American naval officers, the town in possession of the Cubans, and the military hospital full of Spanish soldiers. General Feria gave us horses and an escort and the same afternoon we jogged away to the southward.

"The blight of war fell heavily on those eastern provinces. The country is a desert—void of life beyond any district we saw. The roads are mere trails, losing themselves in seas of grass and underbrush, needing a native guide to find them at times. For absolute desolation the strip of Santiago lying west of General Toral's surrender-line is beyond any district we saw. In six days, outside of the towns, we did not meet twenty-five human beings. There were men in the woods, but it took long search to find their wretched huts of palm bark. Except in the completeness of its ruin, the zone the Spaniards still hold in Santiago province is typical of all the country east of Havana.

"The striking thing is the perfect order enforced by the insurgents. Traveling is safe as in any state in the Union. Indeed, I am not sure that I would not take more precautions on a horseback journey there than here. Half the time we traveled without escort, only a guide ac-

companying us, and we slept in hammocks in the open, picketing our horses, but taking no other measures to insure their safety or our own.

"Two days at Santiago and we broke away for Manzanillo, reaching there on the 18th. There were no signs then of the evacuation which has taken place since, the Spaniards keeping the town with 3,000 men, the Cubans mustering 1,000 in a camp three miles away. We sailed across the bay to Santa Cruz, got fresh horses and hammered away inland to Puerto Principe. The distress in the province and the city itself is only nominal. The cattle are not all killed yet, and until the last of them have been slaughtered there can be no starvation. The different insurgent chiefs, Maximo Gomez among them, claim that they have 70,000 cattle in reserve yet. At some of the camps they give meat to all who come out to the distribution, reconcentrados and Spanish soldiers from the garrisons alike. It is only when you get away from the grazing country that the appalling ruin which has fallen on the country strikes you.

"After Puerto Principe, our route was a catalogue of hunger-ridden cities with deserts between them. Santo Espiritu, Tunas de Zoza, Placetas, Rojas, Caibarien, Camajuani, Santa Clara, Cienfuegos, Sagua la Grande, Cardenas, Matanzas—these were the principal places we visited before we reached Havana and plunged west into Pinar del Rio. At Placetas we struck the sugar country. What cane fields the insurgents had spared promised an abundant yield, enough perhaps to foot up a third of a full crop before the insurrection began. Down in Pinar del Rio the same thing is true of the tobacco crop—good, what there is of it, and one pound where there were three before.

**DISTRESS OF
THE STRICKEN
DISTRICTS.**

"What is the best way to help the starving people of the island? The Cuban leaders have a plan, which I'm not sure is not the simplest and in the end the only practical way. It is to pay the Cuban army and send the soldiers back to their farms and plantations. That would end the distress, for it is the mothers and fathers, the wives and children of the insurgents who are in the direst need. The Spaniards, except a few among the reconcentrados, have not known the intense misery which has been the common lot of the natives. The insurgent private gets, nominally, \$30 a month. Many of them have served for two years, of

course, without pay. Give them only a part of their earnings and the problem would be solved. With provisions for three months they would be able to clear their farms and go back to the old way of living. There would be back pay, perhaps pensions, for the widows and orphans. The pay of the officers is so little greater than that of the men that the entire army may be counted privates. The revenues from import duties, once the Spanish surrender the customs houses, would speedily satisfy the debt which Cuba owes the insurgent army.

"At Matanzas the Comal is trying another plan. It would be a good plan if there were a Comal in every Cuban port. But it would require a fleet of transports to fill the hungry mouths of Cuba's thousands, and there seems to be no disposition to send provisions to any other point. There is food enough in the island if the poor had money to purchase it.

"The insurgents deserve some consideration. They made tremendous sacrifices when they went to the woods. They have endured privations without end. As fighters they are as good as any soldiers I know. Their officers are superior to Spanish officers of the same grade in intelligence and bravery. If the bottom had not dropped out of the Spanish war after the battle of Santiago the American army would have found them invaluable allies in their advance upon Havana. Without their aid as guides and scouts the overland march to Havana would have been all but impossible. That's one bit of knowledge Parker and I picked up on our progress westward. The other things we must report to Washington before we can talk of them."

A few days after Colonel Rowan finished his journey, a party of American military officers began a journey of investigation through Pinar del Rio. It included Colonels Lee, Livermore, O'Reilly, Bliss and Thompson, and two interpreters. **AN EXPEDITION INTO PINAR DEL RIO.** They left Havana for the capital of the province at noon, October 26, by a special train. The visitors made careful inquiry as to the conditions of the province in commerce and agriculture and the conditions of the people.

Pinar del Rio is a town of some 9,000 or 10,000 inhabitants and has only one industry, that of receiving tobacco grown in the surrounding district. The finest tobacco of the island is grown here. Ordinarily a bale of tobacco is worth from \$60 to \$120, but bales have sold for as high

as \$1,000 a bale. Sometimes the wind, the rain, the sun, the soil and the moisture seem specially to favor one little patch throughout the season, with the result that the product becomes almost priceless in the mind of the tobacco man. The mysteries of this tobacco-growing business are beyond the understanding of the layman.

The city and district suffered severely on account of the reconcentrado order. It is estimated that there were then 2,000 men, women and children of the community suffering from the effects of starvation. Very few of these victims of the war were to be seen by the traveler. They are afflicted with feet that are swollen to bursting, with shriveled arms, with bloated bodies and other disfigurements resulting from the lack of food. They are beyond human aid. They suffer but little even now. Their senses are dulled to pain. Their bodies are almost incapable of receiving the benefit of food. They will struggle along in this condition for days or weeks or even months to their deaths. Some may get well, but the most of them will perish. A few of the helpless creatures go out to beg, but most of them are resigned to their fate. The number given, 2,000, is an estimate based on answers from several, but it is proper to say that no one had any fair idea as to how many there were in such a condition.

It was estimated by the doctors and merchants that between 30,000 and 40,000 had died as the result of the reconcentrado order. The Spanish army prepared some statistics on this subject, which, while open to the charge of prejudice, will be the only figures of value. Those of the natives are certainly worthless. Various men in position to have some knowledge of the matter, estimate the death list from 10,000 to 100,000. Pinar del Rio is a very sickly place. The water is taken from shallow wells and springs contaminated by surface drainage and is said to contain all the fever bugs in the books. It is as pure as crystal and very beautiful water. The natives drink it, although in the more careful homes it is boiled and filtered.

The merchants suffered severely from the destruction of the tobacco crops and from the bando forbidding tobacco to be planted. They had loaned their money to the small farmers and had mortgages on their crops. These mortgaged crops were destroyed. Now, as the tobacco

**MERCHANTS
AND FARMERS
SUFFER ALIKE.**

plants are being put in the ground, the merchants who can afford to do so are putting out a second loan to the same farmers. These loans are in the shape of provisions and probably are sold at extravagant figures. One commission merchant has lent out in this manner \$150,000. As a matter of fact it is not so hard on the merchants as it is on the farmers. With two mortgages on their little farms it is hard to see how they can ever pay. Two good crops may save them. The farmers are thrifty and the merchants, except for the prices they charge, are indulgent. They allow plenty of time.

Pinar del Rio is a very primitive place. It is one place on the island where no English is spoken. It is hard to find any one in the city who can speak anything but Spanish or a little French. The women wear the mantilla, but no hats. The customs of the people are those of a hundred years or more ago.

The only American then living in the city was Alfredo Raban, who came from New Orleans twenty-two years ago. He said he had had no practice with the English language since that time. He was a tanner. The Spaniards practically drove him out of the business by high taxes. He tanned two or three hides a day, and his total business was between \$5,000 and \$6,000 a year. On this he was taxed \$350, and as he began to do a little better his taxes were raised. He is now a butcher. Aside from general taxes he pays a special tax of 2½ cents on each pound of beef. Every small steer he buys costs him more than \$100, and he sells the meat at 50 cents a pound. Only a few eat meat. He says the cattle business will soon improve, and that the greatest favor the United States can do the common people is to admit cattle free of duty. The tobacco farmers do not use all of their land each year, and the unused portion is excellent for grazing.

One of the party of investigators tells an interesting story of the journey they made to a Cuban farm from the city of Pinar del Rio. He says:

"Early in the morning of October 27 the mules attached to El Globo hotel were ready to take the American military officers on a camp-seeking excursion. The small American party had been swelled to considerable proportions by the addition of the civil engineer of the village, the alcalde (the mayor), the principal doctor, the superintendent of the

electric light works and a guide, who was the most useful member of the party, not excepting any colonel. Colonel Lee had been provided with a very strong gray horse, but all others who were mounted rode little tough mules. Colonels Bliss and O'Reilley went in a volante. As soon as all were ready we were off with a clatter. We went at once to a high plain to the northwest of the city. The engineer had been told exactly what was wanted in the way of plenty of pure water and high land. The natives who had property in that direction, which the American officers did not know, were quite certain that the fine springs and the dry land was just what was needed by the Americans. Upon the arrival the land was seen to be all right. There were several hundred acres of high, dry land. Then we went to the springs. There was about a bucketful in one and a barrellful in the other. They were a mile apart. It had been raining and the water was very muddy. The residents were asked if they thought this sufficient water for 2,000 men. They thought it extremely likely that the water would suffice if it was carefully husbanded. Then the residents knew of a famous spring ten kilometers away. It was really a magnificent spring. They were so glowing in their descriptions of the purity and grandeur of this spring that the party cantered toward the mountains, from one of the ravines of which the spring was said to gush forth. Away we rattled and splashed. At times we were on high, rocky hills, and then we would be down in the muddiest places conceivable. The sun had passed the meridian, and Colonel Lee with the assistance of an interpreter, proceeded to test the natives as to their knowledge of distance. He found after an hour and a half's traveling that the spring was still ten kilometers away. An explanation was sternly demanded, and it was learned that the first time the men had been speaking of distance as the crow flies, and that now they were talking of distance as it must be traveled. This was a bitter blow, as it was 1 o'clock and our breakfast had consisted only of coffee, with dry bread without butter. The real breakfast was to have been had at 11 o'clock. It was decided to stop at a farmhouse.

**LOOKING FOR A
SUPPLY OF
SPRING WATER.**

"This brought us to one of the pleasantest experiences of the journey. The farmer and his wife received us most cordially, and insisted that they would like to do a little more than simply provide milk for

the Americans. They wanted to get breakfast. Colonel Lee at last consented. Then there was such a bustle in the housewife department in that dwelling that may be only compared to the preparations for dinner in a western home, when all the thrashing-machine hands are on the place. Narviso Chevaria was the farmer. He had a wife and two daughters, but a great many more persons gathered to assist the women folk. Señor Chevaria has a farm of eighteen hectares, or about thirty-eight acres. He has a stone house, with two front rooms, one a large living room, and off that a guest chamber. There was an L to the rear, in which was one storeroom and a kitchen and another bedroom. The large front room was plainly furnished. In the center was a long table. There were a dozen chairs, made of strong oak, covered with skins. There was no glass in the windows, but there were heavy wooden shutters. There were some old farm implements piled in one corner of the room, and at one side was a Winchester rifle and a machete. Cots were also strewn about. In the smaller room were some images with candles in front of them. It had no other furniture. The floors of these rooms were made of bricks about eight inches square. There was a vine-covered porch in front.

"The farmer had a large palm-thatched barn and one other farm building. There was a row of cocoanut trees leading up to the house. From these we gathered cocoanuts before breakfast and drank the milk. It was as clear as the purest water and very refreshing. We also plucked bananas, but did not eat them. They were carried to the kitchen, where the woman fried them for our dinner. At one side of the house were a number of bearing coffee trees. The berries were in various stages of ripeness. The coffee we had for our dinner was made from berries from these trees. Growing beside them were some lemon trees, which also assisted in furnishing beverages for the meal. Back of the house were several orange trees. They were of the sweet variety, and the fruit was delicious. There were two kinds of oranges, the second variety being not so good to eat. Bees were busy providing honey, and as they can work the year round all the honey can be taken at any time. On the other hand, the bountifulness of nature has made the bee a little improvident. As he is not compelled to store away food for winter he is reckless and lazy.

"While our breakfast was cooking, the men took a walk over Senor Chevaria's farm. He was putting out 1,000,000 tobacco plants and plowmen were getting the ground ready. He had a little patch of corn and a small field of rice. He had gardens of vegetables and a patch of banana trees. He had enough cane for sugar, and, in fact, seemed to raise everything necessary for his home. His marketable product was his tobacco. The soil seemed to be very rich. It should not be forgotten that he also had apple trees and pineapples. We did not see the latter, as they were on another part of the farm.

**LUXURIES OF
LIFE ON A
CUBAN FARM.**

"The breakfast came in about an hour. First we had boiled eggs and omelets. With these we had fried bananas and sweet potatoes. We also had chicken, ham, some dried meats, lettuce, as good bread as was ever baked by woman, guava jelly, all kinds of fruits and excellent coffee. In fact, it was a specially good meal. A first-class claret was also served. These hospitable women had prepared this meal on an hour's notice for a dozen hungry men. Their happiness at being able to serve us was the constant delight of the Americans. Many of them had bare feet and wore somewhat scanty clothing, but their graciousness and courtesy could not be exceeded. With the exception of the bread and salt, everything to be had, even to the pepper, was raised on the place. It was a remarkable breakfast.

"In the same breakfast room less than two months ago there had been a conference of the principal insurgent leaders. The owner of the farm had evidently been a great Cuban sympathizer. In fact, it was apparent that most of the farmers of this district were distinctively insurgents. As we cantered away there was a great waving of handkerchiefs and shouting of good wishes. They were profuse in hoping that the Americans had come to stay and that they would bring better times to the Cubans.

"On the way back from the foothills we ran into an insurgent camp. The soldiers and officers were apparently very glad to see the American officers. One of the officers gave his sword, with which he had fought three years, to Colonel Lee. The American officer objected strongly to taking the officer's arms, but the Cuban insisted. These Cubans were frequently met afterward and were fervid in their greetings. On the

way back to Havana, Colonel Alberto Brito, a commander under General Roderiguiz, boarded the train and offered his services to the Americans. He said that he had had a great many years' experience with yellow fever. He thought his skill might be of some use to the Americans, and if so it was available in any way they saw fit. He was six feet tall, with a fine head, and was about 40 years of age, being one of the most splendid-looking soldiers I ever saw. Farther toward Havana on our way back, at Guira, the whole town had turned out and wanted the officers to stop for a reception. The station had been decorated with American flags. The ladies of the city, with the American colors in their hats, were on the platform and cheered the officers. The men gave cheer after cheer for the *Americanos*. It was the only cheering heard while on the trip, and it certainly sounded all right. The people were frantic with delight. A Cuban on the train explained that they felt just the same at other places where crowds were assembled, but they did not know whether it would be proper to cheer or not, and to avoid making mistakes they had kept still."

The Cuban government regulations for the operations of railroads have this paragraph: "The hand baggage of a gentleman shall consist of one hatbox, one satchel and one fighting chicken."

This being one of the rules for the government of the railroad properties of Cuba, it may be set down that there are others equally as foolish, and that the railroads are oppressed on senseless regulations.

**HIGH RATES
ON RAILWAYS
OF CUBA.**

As a matter of practice the railroads will permit a man to carry sixty-eight pounds of baggage, including the fighting chicken. This is a concession. One railroad 123 miles long has three first-class coaches, five second-class coaches and eight third-class coaches. They are in bad condition, and would not be acceptable to a second-rate road in the United States. This same road has eighty-five freight cars, including box, flat and coal cars. This road runs through one of the most populous districts of Cuba, and one of the most productive. The fare one way for a passenger is \$7.40 in gold, a distance of 123 miles as stated. Added to this is a government tax of 10 per cent and a small fixed tax which the railroad collects from the passenger for the government. The total fare for the distance is a few cents less than \$9. The tariff

on a ton of first-class freight for the same distance is \$22. A government tax must also be collected from the shipper. The railroads are all in the hands of private corporations, but the government exercises considerable control.

The high prices for shipment and travel and the poor condition of the rolling stock and equipment form only a part of the troubles of the American military board trying to arrange for the transportation of troops. Lately there has been some consolidation of the different systems, but there remain fourteen different systems. The annoyance and vexation which this causes the shipper may best be explained by saying that in shipping a carload of freight from Havana to Cienfuegos four different railroads are used. Payments must be made separately to these different roads. Each one makes out its own bill of lading and incidentally pays its own government tax. Settlement must be made with each one of these roads. There is no system of prorating charges.

The charges are so high that they are almost prohibitive, even for the United States government. In the United States it was usual to take a train of three sections, with twelve cars to the section, for the transportation of a regiment. The problem here becomes one of time. How long will it take to transport four regiments 100 miles over a road that has less than twenty small passenger cars? Presuming that the soldiers might eventually be moved to their destination, how long will it take to ship the necessary stores, equipment and forage? The meager facts make clear the difficulties and explain why the American military board probably has not yet been able to announce to Washington its transportation arrangements.

It is very likely that water transportation will be used for the military stations in many parts of the island, but as a matter of necessity there must be some interior stations. In some manner the railroads must take care of this transportation.

The province of Santiago de Cuba, throughout the term of the insurrection, was always known by the insurgents as Cuba Libre, so entirely was it in the possession of their forces. There never was a time when the most exuberant of General Weyler's claims took the form that Santiago was "pacified." With a railway connecting this province

and the western portions of the island, it is bound to flourish. Several excellent harbors, prosperous towns, and the splendid valley of Cauto insure its prominence commercially and agriculturally. The raising of cane and the manufacture of sugar are the chief sources of wealth in the province. The city of Manzanillo on the west coast of the province is the port for a splendid agricultural country. In the vicinity of the city are many centrals where the grinding of cane is done for the owner of the estate by men who make their profit altogether out of the business of grinding, as described in the chapter regarding sugar culture in Puerto Rico.

Guantanamo, Santiago and Manzanillo are the three important sugar shipping ports of eastern Cuba. Next in importance agriculturally come the coffee and cocoa plantations, with which Santiago province is thickly covered. Coffee and cocoa plants are generally grown on the same "finca," or plantations, the frail coffee shrub requiring for its growth the shade offered by the tall and overhanging cocoa tree. The coffee shrub yields its crop in November, but, as it is not regular and uniform, three harvests are made annually, the first in November, the second in January and the third in March. Large quantities of cocoa have been shipped annually to Spain and France, at prices varying between \$15 and \$17 per hundredweight, free on board; but for many years no coffee has been exported from the island of Cuba. The reason for this lies in the fact that Cuban coffee, like Cuban tobacco, is of a rare quality and aroma, raised and selected by experts, and of necessity bringing a price which would not easily find a market for the product abroad. On the fields Cuban coffee sells for \$21 to \$25 per 100 pounds.

In bygone days these "cafetales" (coffee plantations) used to be the pride of the Spanish grandees, their original owners, who lived on their plantations in magnificent style, feasting and merrymaking and paying little attention to the management of their estates while they yielded a handsome living. But gradually their plantations ceased to produce these kingly incomes. Frenchmen, driven over from Haiti, formed a strong colony in Santiago in those early days, and they took advantage of the tax and short-sighted hidalgos. They loaned their money on the

plantations, had themselves appointed overseers, foreclosed their mortgages and became the owners of the rich "cafetales," most of which to this day are owned by their descendants. A very common parasite creeper which clings to the tough and sturdy mahogany trees, choking and killing them inch by inch, until after twenty years the trees are dead and decayed, is still called "the French overseer."

**LIFE ON THE
OLD COFFEE
PLANTATIONS.**

Maize, yams, sweet potatoes and other vegetables grow everywhere with little care or supervision. On most coffee plantations these vegetables are grown, which amply feed and sustain the planter, who, after six months, is on a self-sustaining basis, with a goodly coffee crop ahead as clean profit.

Around the pretty little city of Baracoa, northwest of Cape Maisi, has centered a considerable commerce in bananas, cocoanuts and chocolate. Until the outbreak of the Cuban revolution, the city was highly prosperous and on an average fourteen fruiters a week called in the harbor to obtain cargoes. In those days, three or more years ago, Baracoa did a big business with the outside world. In one of those good years over 2,000,000 bunches of bananas were shipped to the United States, over 4,000,000 cocoanuts, about 5,000 barrels of cocoanut oil (fifty-two gallons to the barrel) and large quantities of pineapples, wild oranges, coffee and cocoa beans from which chocolate is made. A barrel of cocoanut oil weighs 375 pounds and was worth 10 cents a pound on the docks in Baracoa. The country for miles around pays tribute to Baracoa in days of peace, and the citizens of the pretty little town believe those days will return if the Americans govern the island.

Good land, suitable in every way for banana culture, can be rented at a nominal price. It can be bought outright all the way from 50 cents to \$50 an acre, depending on location. It costs to clear the woods and plant banana roots \$1,000 a caballira (about thirty-three acres). This cost includes all the expenses of clearing, planting, cultivating and harvesting. Within fourteen months from the time the clearing begins the fruit is ready for the market. On a caballira 10,000 banana trees can be planted, but, as not every tree will bear, it is safe to figure on 8,000 bunches for the first yield. First-class bunches will bring on the plantation from 35 to 45 cents each; second-class bunches from 30 to 35 cents.

In Baracoa it is the practice to cut down all shoots but one, thus forcing the single shoot to bear one of the large bunches of long, thick bananas which find ready sale in the United States. These figures were given by Senor Simon, who has thousands of acres in his plantations. Some idea of the importance of the banana industry in the Baracoa district can be gathered from the fact that there are three cable ways used for bringing the fruit down to the coast from the hills. One of these cable ways is over four miles long and it cost \$200,000 to build. It has a capacity of 15,000 bunches of bananas a day, bringing them down in lots of twelve bunches at a time.

The Boston Fruit Company of Port Antonio, Jamaica, has developed the banana business of that island until it has reached enormous proportions. It is probable that their interests will be extended to Cuba owing to the remarkable opportunity offering there.

The woods and forests of eastern Cuba abound in every variety of hardwood, the principal being mahogany, cedar, rosewood and "majagua," a wood known the world over as the strongest and most durable of all woods, of greenish, ashy hue and an exceedingly close grain. Most—in fact, nine-tenths—of the woodlands are virgin forests which

**WOODS AND
FORESTS OF
EASTERN CUBA.**

it would take years and years to decimate and which have thus far escaped destruction, owing to the lack of transportation facilities to the seacoast. The "yaya," or lancetspar, grows by the thousand acres, and so does the *lignum vitae*, so much sought after for the manufacture of block sheaves and of heavy balls used in bowling alleys.

Palm leaf in great quantities is exported to Europe and the United States for the manufacture of hats. Honey and beeswax are other very important articles of export, and modern hives on the plan of the French and Dutch hives would amply repay the investment. Some parcels of tortoise shell find their way weekly into the market, and as a rule are shipped to Paris.

Next in importance to its agricultural products Santiago de Cuba's iron and manganese mines demand universal attention. The great iron mountains and mines of Santiago are owned and operated by three companies—the Juragua Iron Company, the Spanish-American Company and the Sigua Iron Company. The Juragua is the oldest and largest

company. This company, of which Major Bent of the Pennsylvania Steel Company is president, was formed and the property acquired in 1881. Its shipments of Bessemer ore so far exceed 3,000,000 tons. The total output of the Juragua mines is controlled by the Bethlehem Iron Works, the Pennsylvania Steel Company and the Maryland Steel Company. Its maximum monthly output is 40,000 tons. Siboney is the shipping port of the Juragua Iron Company's mines.

The Spanish-American Iron Company, of which Charles F. Rand of New York is president, acquired its property in 1889. Its shipments thus far have been 400,000 tons—to Philadelphia, Baltimore, England, Scotland, Wales, Belgium and Germany, where it has been sold in the open market. Its maximum monthly output is 29,000 tons. Baiquiri is the shipping port of the Spanish-American Iron Company.

The Sigua Iron Company, which started with a big boom in 1890, built a broad-gauge railroad nine miles long and extensive buildings and sheds, shipped four cargoes in 1894 aggregating 12,000 tons, and has not been heard from since, abandoning its property and closing down its mines. Sigua, about seven miles east of Baiquiri, was its port of shipment. All its buildings, sheds and wharves, valued at \$2,000,000, were burned down by the insurgents, and their railroad beds and trestles, evidently very badly built, have all been washed away in the last three years by the heavy rains. Their machine shops have all been destroyed and were at one time used as salt works by the Cubans.

With a wealth of natural resources, rich in agricultural and mineral soil, Santiago de Cuba only awaits American brains, enterprise and capital to make it one of the richest as well as one of the most beautiful spots in the world. So it is throughout the island. From Cape Maisi to Cape San Antonio there are waiting opportunities by the score for the man with brains and energy, or capital and energy, and sufficient sagacity to take advantage of them.

The industries and commerce of Cuba have been greatly diminished by the state of insurrection and war which has existed in the island for more than three years. From a summary of Cuban trade printed in the "Review of the World's Commerce," recently published by the Department of State, it appears that the imports of the island during the fiscal year ended April, 1896, amounted to \$66,166,754, and the exports to \$94,-

395,536. In 1893, the trade of Cuba with the United States alone showed the following figures: Imports, \$78,706,506; exports, \$24,157,698. The trade had fallen off during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1897, to imports, \$18,406,815; exports, \$8,259,776. During the years 1891-96, inclusive, the commerce of Cuba with Spain amounted to about \$30,000,000 per annum, but in 1892, it rose to as much as \$37,600,000, and in 1895, to about \$33,500,000. The imports of Cuba from Spain were usually about three times the exports of Cuba to Spain, the latter being about \$4,250,000 in 1896 and \$9,570,000 in 1892. The imports from Spain ranged during the six years between \$22,000,000 in 1891 and \$28,000,000 in 1892. The principal articles of import and export between Cuba and the United States are shown in the following tables for the year 1893, when the trade reached its maximum of value since 1874, and the year 1897:

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS FROM CUBA INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Articles.	1893.	1897.
Free of duty:		
Fruits, including nuts	\$ 2,347,800	\$ 154,422
Molasses	1,081,034	5,448
Sugar	60,637,631
Wood, unmanufactured	1,071,123	63,670
Dutiable:		
Tobacco—		
Unmanufactured	8,940,058	2,306,067
Manufactured	2,727,030	1,971,214
Iron ore	641,943
Sugar	11,982,473

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES TO CUBA.

Articles.	1893.	1897.
Wheat flour	\$2,821,557	\$564,638
Corn	582,050	247,905
Carriages and street cars, and parts of	316,045	3,755
Cars, passenger and freight, for steam railroads.....	271,571	9,202
Coal	931,371	638,912
Locks, hinges and other builders' hardware.....	395,964	49,386
Railroad bars or rails, of steel	326,654	14,650
Saws and tools	243,544	34,686
Locomotives	418,776	20,638
Stationary engines	130,652	1,189
Boilers and parts of engines.....	322,284	35,573
Wire	321,120	35,905

Articles.	1893.	1897.
Manufactures of leather.....	\$ 191,394	\$ 39,753
Mineral oil	514,808	306,916
Hog products	5,401,022	2,224,485
Beans and peas	392,962	276,635
Potatoes	554,153	331,553
Boards, deals, planks, joists, etc.....	1,095,928	286,387
Household furniture	217,126	34,288

In normal years, Cuba exports the greater part of its products to the United States, the principal articles being sugar, molasses, and tobacco, but by reason of the operation of the former Spanish tariff, discriminating in favor of Spanish products, the island imported from the United States a relatively small proportion of what it consumed. Spain and Great Britain furnished the greater part of the imports of Cuba. It may be assumed that, with the relinquishment of Spanish sovereignty, there will no longer be discrimination against United States products. The tariff regulations applied to ports of Cuba in possession of the United States, as the result of the recent military operations, impose the minimum Spanish duty, and the United States products will immediately reap the benefit of a change which places the United States on the same footing with other countries.

The future of Cuba is limitless in its possibilities. Made wholesome in its cities by correct sanitation and wholesome in its government by honest administration, no prophecy could be too glowing. This great treasury is our nearest neighbor in the West Indies and is most readily accessible. The conditions of life and society have been crude in many details and by no means such as appeal to enlightened Americans. But these things will be corrected in great extent by the first influx of American colonists, and the multiplication of Americans in the island will of itself correct that which has been its greatest disadvantage from our own point of view, the absence of a congenial American society. Nature has done her part for Cuba. It remains for industry and wisdom applied through the channels of labor and capital to make Cuba one of the garden spots of earth.

A GLANCE AT
CUBA IN
THE FUTURE.





Book IV.

The Hawaiian Islands.

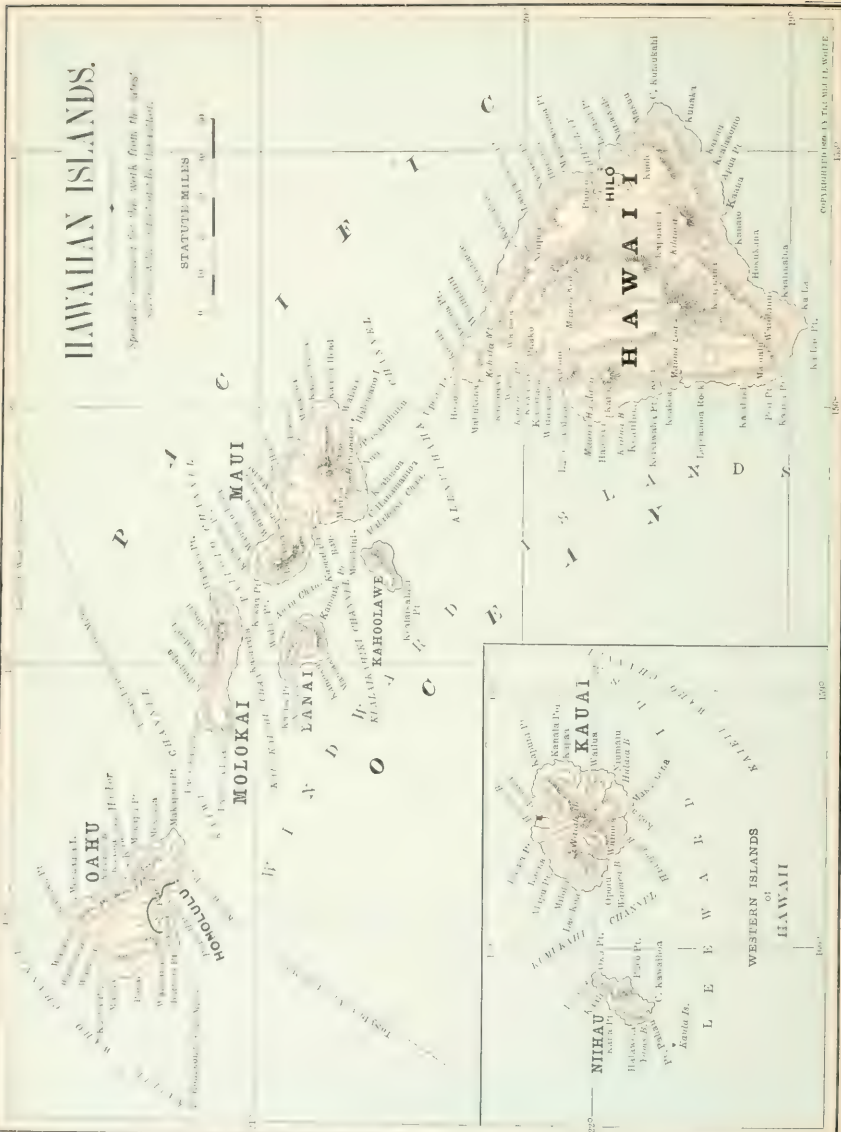
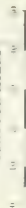




HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

Special outline of the main group from the atlas.
Scale. 1 inch = 10 miles.

STATUTE MILES



“THE PARADISE OF THE PACIFIC.”

VIRTUALLY in the midst of the greatest sweep of open water in the Pacific ocean, lies the archipelago known as the Hawaiian islands. Long ago it gained the suggestive title of “The Cross-roads of the Pacific,” because of its peculiar position at the point where almost every line of trans-oceanic travel passed through or near the island metropolis.

Honolulu, the capital, is the largest city in all the island groups of the Pacific, unless one include in the comparison the cities of New Zealand, Australia and the extreme Orient. Its growth in population and in commercial importance has followed all the laws that govern the growth of cities elsewhere. The comparison rises to mind instantly between Honolulu and the cities of our own middle west. Within our borders, where farmers congregate for their mail, for their market supplies, for the selling of their grain and the shoeing of their horses, there must begin the nucleus of a city and from those humble beginnings have sprung some centers of commerce and wealth which are now most notable in our land.

After like fashion, the demands of commerce, trade and travel brought the Hawaiian islands from the unimportant position of a tropical group inhabited by savages in a waste of waters, to the proud station of to-day. In the phraseology of the mariner's chart, Honolulu lies in latitude 21 degrees, 18 minutes north of the equator and 157 degrees, 52 minutes west of Greenwich. This is about sixty miles south of Havana and Hong Kong, which are on an almost exact east and west line with one another, and about sixty miles north of the city of Mexico and Santiago de Cuba. The Isle of Pines, which lies just south

HONOLULU CRE-
ATED BY COMMER-
CIAL NEEDS.

of the Cuban coast below Havana, is of almost the same size and the same latitude as the island of Oahu, on which Honolulu is situated. The parallel of latitude which passes through Honolulu, crosses the Atlantic ocean 125 miles north of the capital of Puerto Rico, strikes across the Sahara desert of Africa, passes just north of Mecca, in the Arabian peninsula, cuts into India 100 miles north of Bombay, passes just south of Calcutta, and reaches the Pacific ocean again near Hong

**SITUATION OF
THE HAWAIIAN
ISLANDS.**

Kong. A line drawn north and south through Honolulu strikes the peninsula of Alaska and cuts through it at the widest part, reaching the Arctic ocean at that extremest of United States outposts in the Polar regions, Point Barrow, the shelter of ice-bound whalers. South of Honolulu one may travel all the way to the icebergs of the Antarctic, seeing no land except the scattered islands of the Hervey group.

It is 2,089 miles from San Francisco to Honolulu, about two-thirds of this distance being credited to the westward sailing and one-third to the southward. It is when one draws lines upon the map corresponding with the distances here indicated that one realizes the aptness of the phrase in calling Honolulu the "Cross-roads of the Pacific." From Honolulu to Sitka, the capital of Alaska, is but 2,400 miles and to Unalaska, the port of sealers, whalers and gold-seekers, but 2,000 miles. It is but 3,400 miles from Honolulu to Yokohama, 4,900 to Hong Kong, 2,700 to the Fiji islands, 2,300 to the Samoan islands, 3,850 to Auckland, New Zealand, 4,700 miles to Sydney, New South Wales, 2,400 to Tahiti in the Society islands, 4,700 miles to Panama, and 4,200 miles to the western entrance of the Nicaragua canal.

**HONOLULU
AND THE
PACIFIC PORTS.**

If one has thought them remote from our California ports, it is worth remembering that the outlying Aleutian islands extend far westward of the Hawaiian group and are much farther from San Francisco, through a sea which is much more inclined to be stormy than is the more southerly Pacific.

Traffic from the Canadian ports, as well as from those of the United States, touches Honolulu in sailing to the islands of the South Pacific and the British colonies of New Zealand and Australia. Vessels sailing from San Francisco and San Diego call at Honolulu on their way to the ports of Japan, China and India. Traffic between Japan and the

cities of Mexico and South America always reaches Honolulu, while steamers and sailing vessels from the Atlantic ocean rounding Cape Horn or passing through the straits of Magellan for Japanese ports and the ports of north China almost always come to the same island capital.

Honolulu has been the port of whalers ever since the first colonization of the Hawaiian group by white people. From that harbor they have sailed into Behring sea, after obtaining provisions and supplies for the voyage, to return there a year later for the disposal of their product or to refit for the long homeward voyage. From the same docks have sailed other adventurers into the south seas seeking copra or beche-de-mer or kauri gum or pearls or gold, with other treasures more mythical to tempt them into the ocean of romantic story.

By force of circumstances and the demands of fleets Honolulu grew to be a metropolis and a city of important commerce while yet its population was smaller than that of many a western town of little more than local fame. Dry-docks, engine-works, warehouses, banks, and great companies devoted to export and import trade, grew and prospered. The delights of island life in a perfect climate tempted men there for rest and pleasure. The most marvelous volcanoes of the world offered attractions for tourists that could not be duplicated elsewhere. The wealth of the island products, sugar and coffee, tempted agriculture. There was nothing lacking that could appeal to the traveler. Then came changing conditions in island government that added the romance of history to the story of Hawaii. This is the group whose government we have assumed. Its story cannot fail of interest and importance.

**DEVELOPMENT OF
THE HAWAIIAN
ISLANDS.**

CHAPTER XLIV.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF HAWAII.

Beginning of Definite Knowledge of the Hawaiian People—Early Discoveries by Spanish Navigators—Captain Cook's Arrival and Reception—Trouble between Natives and Sailors—Death of Captain Cook—Kamehameha I. and His Reign—Arrival of the First American Missionaries—The Second Kamehameha Dies in London—Lord Byron's Visit to Honolulu—Outrages upon the Islanders—Progress of Education and Religion—The British Flag Raised in Honolulu—Independence of the Kingdom Guaranteed—Rule of the Last Kamehameha—Leprosy Discovered in the Islands—Reciprocity Treaty with the United States—Death of King Kalakaua in San Francisco.

THE history of the Hawaiian islands and their native inhabitants, like that of other nations, begins to take definite form after centuries which are lost in the midst of ages. The traditions of the prehistoric times are of great interest to those who wish to make specific study of the people of the Polynesian islands and their voyages, but they are too vague to be treated here in detail. Beginning, however, about the middle of the eleventh century it is possible to know with a considerable degree of accuracy the actual progress of Hawaiian history, so that for more than 800 years we are able to trace the career of the people, their government and their wars.

About the end of the thirteenth century, a warlike and ambitious local chief of the island of Hawaii undertook to subdue the whole group. He was successful in the islands of Maui, Molokai and Oahu, but in Kauai was totally defeated, his fleet being taken and his army destroyed. That island maintained its independence from the rest of the group until the present century. From this time until the conquest of the group by Kamehameha, the conqueror, Judge Fornander, a local student, has tersely said: "It was an era of strife, dynastic ambitions, internal and external wars, on each island, with all their deteriorating

consequences of anarchy, depopulation, social and intellectual degradation, loss of liberty, loss of knowledge, loss of arts."

Wars became more frequent and more cruel, while the common people became more and more degraded and oppressed and were probably decreasing in numbers in Hawaii as well as in Tahiti before the end of the eighteenth century.

**SOME EXPLORERS
IN THE PACIFIC
BEFORE COOK.**

The discovery of the Hawaiian islands by Captain James Cook was the turning point in their history, bringing them into connection with the rest of the world and ushering in an era of remarkable prosperity. He, however, was not the first European to reach the islands. There is fairly complete evidence that a Spanish vessel was driven ashore on the island of Hawaii in 1527, it being one of a squadron of three which sailed from the Mexican coast for the East Indies. Again in 1555, the Spanish navigator Juan Gaetano is believed to have touched at the Hawaiian islands, the evidence being found on old Spanish charts which locate a group approximately in the position of this archipelago. Fortunately, however, the Spanish made no use of this discovery, thus permitting the Hawaiians to escape the sad fate of the natives of the Ladrões and Carolines under Spanish dominion. These discoveries consequently have no bearing on the civilization of the islands any more than the Norsemen's voyages to the American coast had upon the colonization of the United States.

At the time of the birth of Kamehameha, in the year 1736, the islands were torn by warfare of the most desperate sort. When he became old enough to share in the fighting, the young prince distinguished himself in these campaigns as a brave and skillful warrior.

The war was still going on in the island of Maui when Captain Cook reached the islands. The great navigator had already made two voyages of discovery around the globe and was then making his third, to find, if possible, a northern passage from the Pacific to the Atlantic ocean. With his two armed ships, the *Resolution* and the *Discovery*, on Sunday morning, the 18th of January, 1778, he discovered the island of Oahu. The next morning he approached the island of Kauai and on the 20th made a landing at Waimea on the southwest coast. The natives treated him with great deference, furnished him with hogs,

**NATIVES ARE
CORDIAL AND
HOSPITABLE.**

fowls and vegetables in exchange for nails and pieces of iron, and willingly assisted in filling and rolling the water casks.

Having explored the coast of Alaska, Behring straits and the Arctic ocean until he was stopped by the ice fields, Captain Cook returned to spend the winter in the sunny isles. He cruised about the islands during the month of December and then anchored off the west coast of Hawaii for the month of January. After the first ten days the natives began to tire of their guests and to show them less respect. Their abandoned conduct was such as to disgust even heathens, the lavish contributions levied upon the people for their support began to be felt as a heavy burden, and the absolute lack of consideration for native property and native rights was a source of constant irritation.

Finally, on Sunday, the 14th of February, came the culmination of the difficulties. There had been fights between natives and seamen, and theft on both sides. Captain Cook with a lieutenant and nine marines landed, intending to take the king a prisoner and hold him on board as a hostage for peace and the restoration of stolen property. On their way to the beach a struggle occurred which was begun by the British. A high chief was killed by a musket-shot from the boat and Captain Cook himself then shot a man dead who had thrown a stone. In the general melee which followed, Captain Cook was stabbed in the back with an iron dagger. Four of the marines were killed, but the others and the officers escaped to their vessels. Seventeen natives, five of whom were chiefs, were killed in the affray.

That night the body of Captain Cook was taken to a hilltop, where the regular funeral rites were performed. The flesh was removed from the bones and burned, while the bones were tied up with red feathers and deified. During the week that followed several fights took place between landing parties and the natives, the village was burned and various low acts of cruelty were perpetrated. Finally, a high chief was sent to sue for peace, and on Saturday he delivered up part of the bones of the explorer.

The next day the remains of the late commander were committed to the deep with military honors. The ships finally sailed from the group on the 25th of February.

Such was the impression made on the civilized world by the tragical

**SOME STRANGE
DETAILS OF
SAVAGE WARFARE.**

death of Captain Cook that no foreign vessel touched at the islands for more than seven years. During this time the group was rent into several independent petty kingdoms. It was not until 1796 that the islands were all brought under the rule of a single king by the successive victories of Kamehameha I., the conqueror.

Several landings were made from foreign vessels, both English and American during the last few years of the century, and in several cases conflicts resulted from the indignities offered by the strangers to the natives. Violence, disorder and death were frequent, and from the invaders came the seeds of disease which have ravaged the islands and weakened the people until the present day. Vancouver made three voyages to the islands and finally gained considerable favor from the people and was treated with unbounded hospitality. For a time Great Britain even had a partial title to the islands, for in 1794 a grand council of chiefs placed Hawaii under the British flag as a protectorate, reserving merely the right to regulate their own affairs.

The nations of Europe did not need long to discover that the Hawaiian group would be of great value to them in the control of the trade of the Pacific. From 1809 to 1816, there were successive movements on the part of Governor Baranoff, the Russian ruler of Alaska, looking toward the formation of a colony on the islands. England was interested in maintaining influence over the islands, Spanish vessels made several calls on their way between the American coast and the Philippines, while numerous trading vessels from Oregon reached the islands in search of cargoes of sandal wood.

**NATIONS CAST
COVETOUS EYES
ON HAWAII.**

Kamehameha I. died May 18, 1819, at the age of eighty-two years and in the primitive faith of his ancestors. His work was done. He had consolidated the group under one government, put an end to feudal anarchy and petty wars, and prepared the way for civilization and Christianity. His faults were those of the age and society in which he lived, and both morally and mentally he was far above the other chiefs of his time.

The son of Kamehameha, Liholiho, was formally vested with the sovereign power as Kamehameha II. In the first year of his reign, idolatry and the system of "tabu" were abolished, an advance hardly

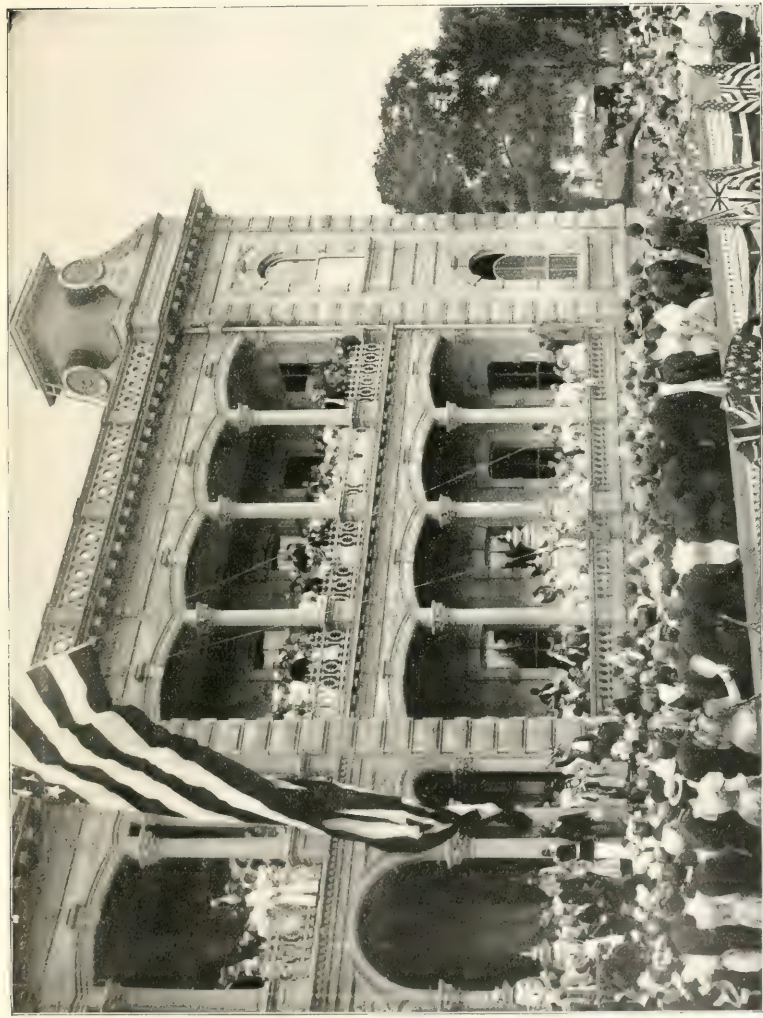
calculable in the civilization of the islands. Soon after this royal decree was promulgated the first company of American missionaries to the islands embarked at Boston. After a voyage of more than five months, this party, on the brig *Thaddeus*, reached Hawaii to find a warm welcome awaiting them. The missionaries were encouraged to a degree which has seldom been equaled in any new field. They were provided with all the necessities of life and all the facilities for the spread of their work that were in command of the island king and people. Reinforcements of missionaries reached Honolulu year by year after the city was definitely established as the seat of government. Whaling vessels from the United States frequented the port and trade grew rapidly.

The reign of the king ended in a peculiarly sad manner. In 1823, with the queen and a party of chiefs, he embarked for a voyage to England and the United States. They landed in Portsmouth after the long voyage around Cape Horn and received great attention from the English nobility, by whom they were feasted and flattered and taken to see all the sights and shows of London. Soon after their arrival one member of the party was attacked by the measles and soon all were taken ill. On the 8th of July the queen died, and this sad event so affected the spirits of the king that he sank rapidly and expired on the morning of the 14th.

**TRAGEDY ENDS
A JOURNEY
TO LONDON.**

Lord Byron, the uncle of the poet, was commissioned to convey the remains of the late king and queen and their attendants back to their native land on the British frigate *Blonde*. A national council of chiefs was held at Honolulu and the young prince *Kauikeaouli* was proclaimed king with the title of *Kamehameha III*. Lord Byron with his corps of scientists made various surveys of the islands and erected a monument to the memory of Captain Cook at the place where he was killed many years before.

Encouraged by Lord Byron's advice, the chiefs now proceeded to take more active measures for suppressing the vices which were destroying their race. In the seaports of Honolulu and Lahaina this policy immediately brought them into collision with a lawless and depraved set of foreigners. It is said to have been the motto of the buc-



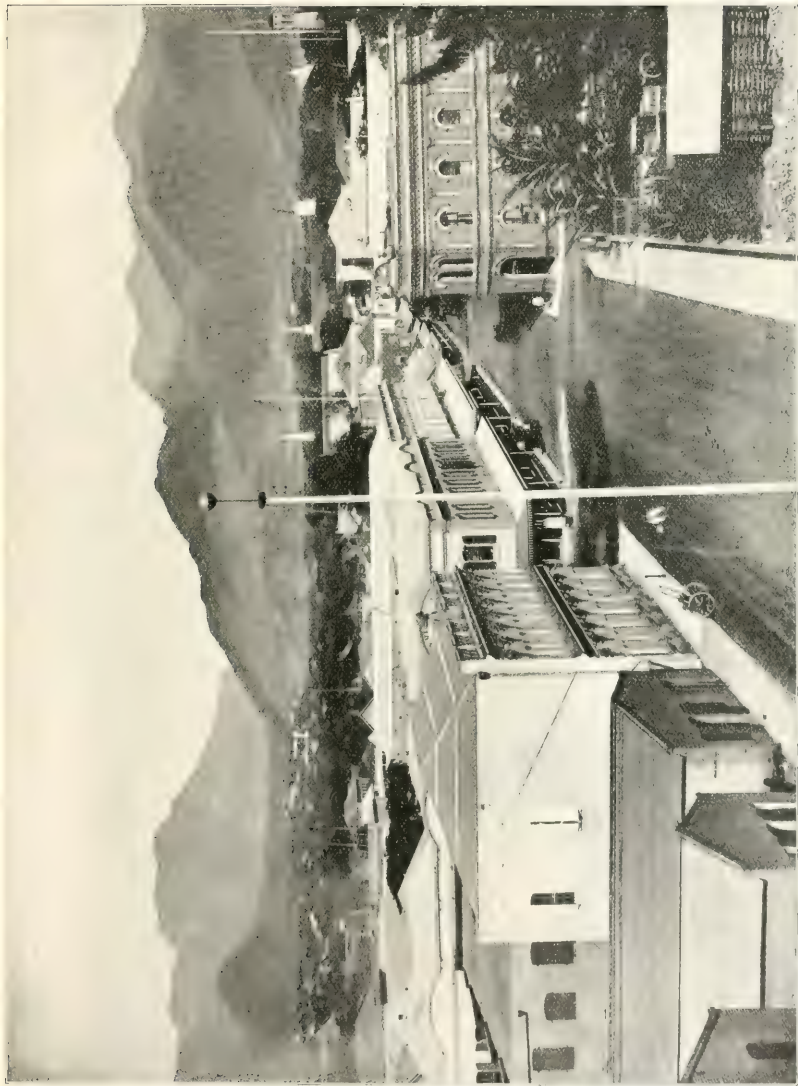
THE ANNEXATION OF HAWAII--"OLD GLORY" HOISTED AT HONOLULU

It was a successful day in Honolulu when the news of annexation reached the people of the islands and they knew that at last they were a part of the United States of America. The flag had been hoisted once before, a few years ago, and lowered again by American orders. This time it was to stay. The government building which appears in the illustration was the palace of King Kalakaua under the monarchy; and afterwards of the deposed Queen Liliuokalani.



SUGAR CANE PLANTATION IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

The cultivation of sugar-cane is so much the dominant industry in Hawaii, that the accompanying scene is a very familiar one to every traveler there. Every great plantation has its own railway line, extending throughout the cane-fields, for the purpose of hauling the crop to the plantation-mill, where the juice is extracted in the crushers.



MAIN STREET, HONOLULU, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

The architecture of the houses and business buildings in Honolulu is far less strange to American eyes than that of the other islands we have annexed. Except as modified by conditions of tropical climate, the American style is quite closely followed. It is in the vegetation of the city, the mixture of races seen upon the streets and the manners of dress for comfort in the tropics that one observes the greatest novelty.



THE ATHERTON RESIDENCE, HONOLULU, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

The tropical vegetation of royal palms, poinciana and other trees that are unknown to residents of the United States, surrounding this mansion, is by no means exceptional in the Hawaiian Islands. Many others are lined with homes quite as attractive as this beautiful place.

careers that "there was no God this side of Cape Horn." Here where there were no laws, no press and no public opinion to restrain men, the vices of civilized lands were added to those of the heathen and crime was open and shameless. Accordingly, in no part of the world was there ever more bitter hostility to reform.

As soon as laws began to be enacted to restrict the evils, a series of disgraceful outrages were perfected to compel their repeal. Mr. Charlton, the British consul, put himself at the head of this faction, and from that time on persistently labored to embarrass the native government and finally to overthrow its independence. The crews of whaling vessels, led by their officers, in more than one instance threatened death to the missionaries and the supporters of decency if the laws against vice were not repealed. Worst of all, a United States armed schooner, the *Dolphin*, under the command of Lieutenant John Percival, in 1826, by the threat of bombardment of Honolulu forced the supporters of decency to yield and remained in port two months, during which time the little city was the scene of shocking disorder and immorality. Lahaina was the scene of affairs quite as disgraceful, and it is a dark spot in the history of civilization that the natives of Hawaii were forced by European and American captains to permit the violation of their own laws against disorder.

After a regency of several years, Kamehameha III. came to the throne in 1833. That year marked the beginning of notable progress in education and religion. A schoolhouse of brick was erected in Honolulu, as well as a chapel, the frame of which was brought from New London, Connecticut. A girls' boarding school was opened and a manual labor school for boys was established in Hilo in 1837, where it still exists. The remainder of the decade showed a rapid decrease in the native population, a falling off of prosperity and various troubles with foreign powers. The United States quarreled with the Hawaiians on the matter of unsettled debts and claims of American merchants. France resented the expulsion of Catholic missionaries from the islands and enforced their return and the repeal of the obnoxious edict by the presence of powerful men-of-war. England was less involved in

**COMPLICATED
INTERNATIONAL
AFFAIRS.**

difficulties with the little island kingdom, although various controversies had to be settled between the king and the consul by the presence of British men-of-war.

The years 1838-39 were memorable for the great religious revival, which extended to all the islands and affected nearly all the people. More than 5,000 were admitted to the Protestant churches in 1839 and 10,000 the next year. During the year 1839 the first draft of the constitution was drawn up in the Hawaiian language by the council and a declaration of rights was signed by the king and promulgated. This may be considered as the Magna Charta of Hawaiian freedom. Educational affairs were flourishing. A family school for the education of the young chiefs was founded in 1840, while the school established at Punahou in 1842 by the American mission still exists as Oahu college. The English language began to be taught in the schools.

The weakness of the Hawaiian islands in comparison to the great powers was such that the kings had been compelled to yield to every demand made by England, France and the United States. Unjust claims had been paid and unjust treaties accepted. Finally, an embassy to foreign powers was sent abroad in 1842 with most satisfactory results. The embassy had several interviews with Daniel Webster, then secretary of state of the United States, and from him they received an official letter, December 19, 1842, which recognized the independence of the Hawaiian kingdom.

While the Hawaiian commissioners were in Europe, negotiating with England, France and Germany for similar recognition, events of thrilling interest were taking place at the islands. In February, 1843, the British frigate *Carysfort*, commanded by Lord George Paulet, arrived at Honolulu and within two weeks had so exhausted the possibilities of resistance by extravagant demands and a threat of bombardment, in spite of the protests of other foreign representatives, that on February 25 the king ceded the islands provisionally to the British government, and the British flag was hoisted. Six months later, however, the British flagship in the Pacific reached Honolulu with the British admiral aboard. He apologized for the outrage that had been perpetrated, and with impressive ceremonies the Hawaiian royal

**ISLANDS ARE
CEDED TO
GREAT BRITAIN.**

standard was again hoisted and all the men-of-war in port saluted the colors.

This succession of events proved the necessity of defining the status of the Hawaiian kingdom. On the 20th of November, 1843, the two governments of France and England united in a joint declaration to the effect that "Her Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and His Majesty, the King of the French, taking into consideration the existence in the Sandwich islands of a government capable of providing for the regularity of its relations with foreign nations, have thought it right to engage reciprocally to consider the Sandwich islands as an independent state and never to take possession, either directly or under the title of a protectorate, or under any other form, of any part of the territory of which they are composed." This was the final act by which the Hawaiian kingdom was admitted within the pale of civilized nations.

The Hawaiian ship of state might be regarded as safely launched but much remained to be done in order to organize a civilized government. The offices of secretary of state and attorney-general were created, a minister of public instruction was appointed, and on May 20, 1845, the legislature was formally opened for the first time by the king in person, with fitting ceremonies. The history of this reign would be incomplete without a reference to the agitation in favor of annexation to the United States that went on during the years of 1853 and 1854. It was favored by the king as a refuge from impending dangers. He was tired of demands made upon him by foreign powers and of threats by filibusters from abroad and by conspirators at home to overturn the government. The fearfully rapid decrease of the population, the rapid extinction of the order of chiefs, the relapse of the king into the excesses of his youth, and the perils overhanging the feeble government, disheartened many true friends of the nation. It was the belief in the island that a treaty of annexation would be negotiated, when, in December, 1854, the king expired suddenly, to be succeeded by his son under the title of Kamehameha IV.

PROGRESS OF AN
EARLY ANNEX-
ATION MOVEMENT.

The reign of Kamehameha IV. began with bright hopes, but ended in disappointment and sorrow. He ruled from 1855 to 1863, passing

away at the age of twenty-nine. He was an educated, intelligent young man, but his habits became dissipated, and about the middle of his reign, while under the influence of liquor, he shot his private secretary, who died from his wound after several months of suffering. The king's first impulse was to abdicate the throne, but from this he was dissuaded by his advisers. The king never recovered his cheerfulness of disposition after this tragedy. Three years later the baby prince, on whom so many fond hopes were centered, passed away and the king was a broken-hearted man during the remainder of his life.

He was succeeded by his elder brother, who was proclaimed king under the title of Kamehameha V. He it was who promulgated the constitution of 1864, which continued in force for twenty-three years. The dreadful disease of leprosy was first observed in the islands in 1853, and in 1864 it had begun to spread to an alarming extent. In 1865 the present leper settlement was established on the north side of Molokai and segregation began. The king died suddenly in 1872, after a reign of nine years. With him ended the line of the Kamehamehas. Unfortunately, no successor had been appointed to the throne.

Chosen by the legislature, Prince Lunalilo became the next king of the islands. This was a popular choice and a successful administration was in prospect, when the king died, after a reign of only one year. As his successor the legislature elected Colonel David Kalakaua. His reign brings the affairs of the island kingdom up to the point where

**RECIPROCITY
TREATY WITH THE
UNITED STATES.**

they have been most intimately woven with those of the United States. A few months after his inauguration he visited the United States, as a guest of the nation, and was heartily welcomed. Negotiations were immediately opened for a treaty of commercial reciprocity with the United States, which was ratified in June, 1875, and in spite of strenuous opposition in both countries, the laws necessary to carry it into operation were enacted in September, 1876. The conclusion of this treaty was the great event of the reign, and perhaps the most important incident in Hawaiian history since 1843.

After a reign of sixteen years, in order to recruit his failing health, the king visited California in the United States cruiser *Charleston* as

the guest of Rear-Admiral Brown. In spite of the best medical attendance he sank rapidly after his arrival, and on the 20th of January, 1891, he breathed his last at the Palace Hotel, San Francisco. His remains were removed to the Charleston, with imposing funeral ceremonies, and arrived at Honolulu January 29, where the decorations for his welcome were suddenly changed into those of mourning. On the same day his sister, the regent, took the oath to maintain the constitution, and was proclaimed queen under the title of Liliuokalani.

**SUDDEN DEATH
OF KING KALAKAUA
IN SAN FRANCISCO.**

When the queen assumed the throne, a condition existed which had been frequent in Hawaiian history. She was childless, so that there was no direct heir to the crown. It has been a grief to the Hawaiians and a fact which in part explains the rapid change of conditions in the islands, that for many years the native population has been decreasing rapidly. This decrease has been notably rapid in the ranks of the chiefs, so that more than once the choice of a sovereign has been embarrassed on that account.

It was necessary to name an heir-apparent for Queen Liliuokalani outside the line of natural inheritance. Princess Kaiulani was thus proclaimed. She was the daughter of Hon. Archibald Cleghorn, the Governor of the island of Oahu, and Princess Likelike. The child of this English gentleman and Hawaiian princess was a beautiful, intelligent and educated girl, in whom many hopes for a revival of the best in island monarchy were now centered.

CHAPTER XLV.

UNDER THE AMERICAN FLAG.

Changing Conditions in the Last Eight Years—Eccentricities of King Kalakaua—Accession of Queen Liliuokalani—The Queen Deposed by Reform Element—President Cleveland's Effort to Restore the Monarchy to Hawaii—Commissioner Blount's Errand—The Former Queen Wants Revenge—Establishment of the Republic—An Insurrection Against the Government—Hawaii Annexed by the United States—When the Hawaiian Flag Was Lowered—Hoisting of the Stars and Stripes—Commissioners to Formulate a Government for Hawaii—Military Force in Honolulu. Creates Friction—Peace and Prosperity for the Islands.

WITHIN less than eight years the Hawaiian islands ran a remarkable gamut of government. In that time were included the reign of Queen Liliuokalani, the overthrow of the monarchy, the establishment of the provisional government, the hoisting of the American flag as a preliminary to annexation, the hauling down of that flag, at the command of an American president, the establishment of the Hawaiian republic, the revolution by the monarchists, the return of peace and prosperity, and finally the permanent annexation of the group to the United States of America.

In order to understand clearly the conditions which led up to the overthrow of the monarchy, it is necessary to revert to the reign of King Kalakaua. Unlike his predecessors, Kalakaua seemed to regard himself as merely a king of the native Hawaiians, and foreign residents as alien invaders. It also seemed to be his chief aim to change the system of government into a personal despotism, in which he should have unchecked control of the government treasury. The legislatures were packed with subservient office-holders, while every artifice was used to debauch the native voters and foment race prejudice. The national debt grew from \$389,000, in 1880, to \$1,936,000, in 1887. After the legislative session of 1886, the king was virtually his own

prime minister and went from one folly to another, until his acceptance of two bribes, one of \$75,000 and another of \$80,000, for the exclusive right to conduct the opium traffic, selling the same privilege simultaneously to two rival bidders, precipitated the revolution of 1887.

**BRIBERY OF
THE HAWAIIAN
KING.**

Overawed by the unanimity of the movement and deserted by his followers, the king yielded without a struggle. The constitution which he was pleased to sign on the 7th of July, 1887, was a revision of that of 1864, intended to put an end to mere personal government, and to make the executive responsible to the representatives of the people. In 1889 an insurrection headed by R. W. Wilcox was directed against these reforms, and was promptly put down after seven of the rioters were killed and a large number wounded. It is an accepted fact that the king and his sister, who succeeded him, were accessory to this outbreak.

The former queen, in a published statement, has since declared that she took the oath to maintain the constitution unwillingly. The history of her short reign shows that it was her unaltered purpose to restore autocratic government. In short, she was determined to govern as well as to reign. The legislative session of 1892 was protracted to eight months, chiefly by her determination to retain her control of the executive, as well as to carry through the opium and lottery bills. Meanwhile she had caused a constitution to be drawn up which would practically have transformed the government from a limited to an absolute monarchy, besides disfranchising a class of citizens who paid two-thirds of the taxes. This constitution she undertook to spring upon the country by a coup d'état, on the day of the prorogation of the legislature, January 14, 1893. Fortunately at the critical moment, when her preparations were complete, her cabinet ministers shrank from sharing the responsibility of such a revolutionary act, and induced her to postpone it. In such an undertaking, to hesitate is fatal.

**LILIUOKalani
SEEKS
ABSOLUTE POWER.**

Again there was a general uprising of the conservative part of the community similar to that of 1887. But this time public opinion condemned all half-way measures, and declared the monarchy to be forfeited by its own act. The reform leaders organized their forces and

formed a provisional government, which was proclaimed January 17, from the government building. The United States man-of-war *Boston*, which had unexpectedly arrived from Hilo a few days before, landed a force to protect the lives and property of American citizens in case of disorder. The queen's ministers availed themselves of the presence of these troops on shore as an excuse for their inaction, and persuaded the queen to resign under protest, and to appeal to the government of the United States. A treaty of annexation was soon after negotiated with the United States during President Harrison's administration, and was before the senate for confirmation when the administration of President Cleveland began.

Even before President Cleveland's inauguration, it became apparent that his mind was deeply impressed with the belief that the late revolution was the result of a deeply laid conspiracy, aided and abetted by the United States minister to Hawaii and Captain Wiltse of the *Boston*.

**CLEVELAND
SUSPECTS
CONSPIRACY.**

The representatives of the proposed queen and those of Princess Kaiulani, the heir apparent, were able to strengthen him in this conviction, and a few days after his inauguration he withdrew from the consideration of the senate the treaty negotiated with Hawaii. At once he delegated the Hon. James H. Blount of Macon, Georgia, to go to the Hawaiian islands and make thorough investigation of all the affairs which led up to the situation then in effect.

Two days after Mr. Blount reached Honolulu, in harmony with instructions which he had received before leaving Washington, he directed Rear-Admiral Skerrett to haul down the American flag from the government building and to embark the marines on the ships to which they belonged. He had been given paramount authority by the President over the naval officers on that station and over the American minister to Hawaii.

Commissioner Blount's inquiry in Honolulu was by no means of a sort to establish it in the confidence of unprejudiced observers. He showed a disposition to encourage testimony of the sort he wanted and discourage the offering of any other. His report, as might be expected, instead of being the dispassionate summing up of an impartial arbitrator, was a piece of special pleading supported by a mass of purely



PLANTING A RICE FIELD IN HAWAII.

Sugar is considered the principal production in Hawaii, but rice is also cultivated quite extensively and with great success.



A PINE-APPLE RANCH NEAR HONOLULU

Tropical fruits of all kinds grow in abundance. The finest pine-apples in the world grow here and are a source of profit to those who cultivate them.



NATIVES OF HAWAII MAKING "POI"

Poi—the national dish, is made from the root of the taro. The root is baked and beaten on a board with a stone pestle. It is next made into paste by adding water, then allowed to ferment, after which it is eaten.

ex parte evidence. It was filled with extraordinary perversions of history and fact, as well as bitter hostility to the party of civilization and progress in the islands.

Accepting Commissioner Blount's inquiries and report as definitive, President Cleveland made an earnest effort to arrange for the restoration of the monarchy in Hawaii and the overthrow of the republic. He was compelled to abandon his purpose, when the former queen refused to accept the crown and resume the throne at the price of a stipulation and promise to President Cleveland, that the officers of the provisional republic and the leaders of the revolution would not be punished. She declared to the American minister, Mr. Willis, who was conducting the negotiations for Mr. Cleveland, that she would not concede amnesty to her opponents, reserving the right to behead them and confiscate their property. Unwilling to replace in power a monarch whose first act would be so bloodthirsty, President Cleveland was compelled to cease his peculiar efforts and the Hawaiian people were left to work out their own destiny for a few years more.

**FORMER QUEEN
PROVES TO BE
BLOODTHIRSTY.**

It is true that Liliuokalani finally accepted with an ill grace the President's condition, but it was done in such a manner that no confidence was placed in her promise. Consequently the only formal and public move made was a written demand upon the provisional government of the islands by the United States minister that the queen should be restored to her authority and the provisional government relinquished. This demand was as formally refused in a letter signed by Mr. Dole, the minister of foreign affairs, and the incident was declared closed. It is quite certain that if any sort of an effort had been made to reinstate her by force the result would have been bloodshed and revolution in the islands.

When it became evident that there was no hope of annexation during the administration of President Cleveland, the people of the islands began to look toward the formation of a more permanent government than the provisional one which had served its purpose well, but was inadequate for expansion and progress. A constitutional convention consequently was called, which held session from May 20 to July 3, 1894, and on July 4 the constitution was proclaimed. The new govern-

ment was called the Republic of Hawaii and Sanford B. Dole became the first president of the republic, as he had been the head of the provisional government.

**ANOTHER NATION
BORN ON
JULY FOURTH.**

The unfriendly attitude of the American administration toward the republic gave the adherents of the former queen, who sought to re-establish the monarchy in the islands, renewed assurance that theirs might be a winning cause, and conspiracies began to multiply. Finally, on the afternoon of Sunday, January 6, 1895, the marshal received positive information that a quantity of arms were stored and natives were gathering about five miles from the city. A party of officers and volunteers went to search the house and were attacked. Charles Carter, one of the leading young men of the islands, and a graduate of the University of Michigan, was fatally wounded. The firing became general and after a sharp skirmish the conspirators were routed, their loss being unknown. Carter died early the next morning and martial law was at once declared by the president. There were a few skirmishes during the next few days, but no more fatalities occurred. Finally the leaders of the insurrection surrendered or were captured and the hostilities were over.

It was definitely proven that the plan of attack contemplated general destruction by dynamite bombs and incendiarism and that the former queen was a co-conspirator. She and many others were arrested, tried and convicted. During its session of sixty-three days 191 prisoners were brought before the trial commission. Seven were acquitted and sentence was suspended in the cases of sixty-four others. The sentences inflicted on the leaders ranged from thirty-five years' imprisonment at hard labor, with a fine of \$10,000, down to one year's imprisonment, with a \$1,000 fine. Five death sentences were passed,

**PUNISHMENT
OF THE
INSURRECTIONISTS.**

but were commuted by the president. The former queen was sentenced to five years' imprisonment, with \$5,000 fine. Ultimately many of these were released from prison upon signing agreements to leave the country. All but seven of these were granted leave to return within one year. Within six months after the outbreak of the rebellion a large number of the rank and file of those convicted were granted conditional pardons and

the sentences of the leaders reduced to half their terms of imprisonment.

On the first day of January, 1896, the pardons and releases were extended to include every prisoner, even the leaders were permitted to go and come at their pleasure within the country, and the former queen herself was no longer held under espionage. Since that time she has lived alternately in Washington and Honolulu, hoping against hope that something will be done to improve her station and her wealth. She is a woman of considerable private means, with ample resources outside her own fortune in the wealth of her strongest supporters, including Claus Spreckels, the sugar magnate. The crown lands of Hawaii of course reverted to the republic as government lands after the change of administration.

On June 15, by a vote of 209 to 91, the house of representatives adopted the Newlands resolution providing for the annexation of Hawaii. The debate which was ended by this action was one of the most notable of the session of congress, arousing keen interest throughout the country. It was looked upon as a radical departure from the long-established policy of the country, and the first step of a pronounced policy of colonization.

The senate passed the same resolutions by a vote of 42 to 21 and President McKinley signed the bill without delay.

The resolutions related the offer of the Hawaiian republic to cede all of its sovereignty and absolute title to the government and crown land, and then accepted the cession and declared the islands annexed. The resolutions provided for a com-
AMERICAN
TERMS OF
ANNEXATION.
mission of five, at least two of whom were to be resident Hawaiians, to recommend to congress such legislation as they might deem advisable. The public debt of Hawaii, not to exceed \$4,000,000, was assumed, Chinese immigration was prohibited, all treaties between other powers and Hawaii were declared null, and it was provided that until congress should provide for the government of the islands, all civil, judicial and military powers exercised by the officers of the Hawaiian republic should be exercised in such manner as the president might direct, he being given power to appoint persons to put in effect a provisional government for the islands.

Judged in comparison with demonstrations on other occasions, the

news of annexation was received coldly and with little manifestation of joy in Honolulu. For months past, steamer after steamer had arrived, bringing word only that hope was deferred, that no action had been taken by congress on annexation, or that the treaty might be taken up "next week," until the expression "the next steamer" became a by-word with which to taunt the sanguine and hopeful annexationists. The British steamer *Coptic* proved to be the one to bring the news. She reached the dock of Honolulu on the afternoon of July 13, with a flag floating from every masthead and the rigging dressed with pennants and streamers. There were a few incipient parades, some singing of patriotic airs on the wharf, some speeches from the steps of the government building, and a few firecrackers and bonfires at night, but no general celebration. There was, however, a well-grounded feeling of satisfaction that the doubtful status of the island republic was ended.

It was on August 12 that the Hawaiian ensign was hauled down for the last time and the little mid-Pacific nation ceased to exist. It was

**HAULING DOWN
THE
HAWAIIAN FLAG.**

a solemn rather than a festive ceremony, which marked the final transfer of the sovereignty over the Hawaiian islands. There were more tears than cheers. The Hawaiian flag with its eight stripes, alternate white, red and blue, with the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew in the corner, had been the flag of an independent nation since early in the century. Many who saw it hauled down for the last time were born under it and had lived under it all their lives. Associations rich and dear clustered around it. And though they had given their votes and their influence, many of them the best efforts of their political life, in order that it might be superseded by the Stars and Stripes, when it actually came to the supreme moment of change they could not suppress a tear and were in no mood for a vociferous salutation of the new emblem.

As early as 9 o'clock, crowds began to gather about the grounds of the executive building, where the flag-raising ceremonies were to be held. The crowds were principally made up of the poorer classes of Hawaiians, a good many Portuguese, and generally the merely idle, curious elements of the population.

Few of those who gathered thus early went inside the grounds,

though the gates were open. The Hawaiians went about with an air of awed timidity, shame-faced almost at being there, though unable to resist the influence and attraction of a public ceremonial, even when they knew that according to the feelings and sentiments the race was expected to hold, and the larger part of them did hold, they ought not to be there at all.

At the barracks of the national guard there was a bustle of preparation. Uniforms and accouterments were being burnished up, though in this there was a good deal of the preparation for a funeral, for it was the last day of the existence of the organization as the national guard of Hawaii. The guardsmen were under arms and in rank soon after 10 o'clock, and by 11 they were marching down to the boat landing, a quarter of a mile away, to meet the American marines and sailors from the United States ships Philadelphia and Mohican.

**PREPARATIONS
FOR THE
CEREMONY.**

A detail of police, nearly all of them native Hawaiians, led the march. Immediately following them was the government band, the successor under the republic of the royal Hawaiian band and under the same leader, Captain Berger. Both staff and field officers were unmounted. The troops from the warships were already ashore when the national guard reached the landing, and the return formation was quickly organized. As before, the police led, the band followed, then came the national guard and then the marines and sailors under their line officers, accompanied by the band of the Philadelphia, two field pieces bringing up the rear. The line of march was up Fort and King streets, the two principal streets of the city, and into the executive grounds through the main entrance.

The platform on which the ceremonies were to take place had been built directly at the foot of the steps leading into the executive building, the old Iolani palace of King Kalakaua. It was decorated with flags and bunting, principally in the American colors, though the Hawaiian flag had not yet been taken down. From the main tower of the building floated the Hawaiian ensign.

The American troops were drawn up in company front formation, facing the building and the platform, and extending clear across the broad royal palm-lined avenue. The two battalions of the national

guard in battalion front were to the right and left on the circling avenue which surrounded the building. Back of the national guard was the citizens' guard, the body which, in the stormier days of the provisional government, included every white man in the islands capable of bearing arms, no matter what his age or social or financial position. In King street, forming a cordon around the main entrance to the grounds, were the mounted reserves, a branch of the citizens' guard, but uniformed and mounted. Back of the citizens' guard were the general public. There were not many native Hawaiians in the crowd. The sentiment was strong among them that they ought not to be there.

The royalists, of course, remained away as a matter of principle, but even those who had been annexationists or of no political affiliations shared the race feeling that somehow it was not a ceremony which it was fitting for them to attend. Of the five native members of the legislature only one—the speaker of the house—was on the platform reserved for members of that body.

In front of the troops and between them and the executive building and on either side of the main platform were seats reserved for more prominent citizens and the guests of the occasion. These seats were not filled, for many who had expected to be present were either deterred by the threatening sky or by a feeling at the last moment that after all they did not want to see the flag come down.

The ceremony was timed for 12 o'clock noon. Shortly before that hour President Dole, attended by his cabinet and Chief Justice Judd, came from the executive building and took their places on the platform. They were followed at once by Minister Sewall and Admiral Miller and his staff and the principal officers from the Mohican. Members of the legislature and the diplomatic and consular corps were already in their places. The hour for the ceremony had arrived.

There was perfect quiet throughout the grounds. It seemed like a solemn hush. So solemnly quiet was it that the click of cameras, of which there were apparently hundreds in the gathering, seemed a disturbance. The Rev. G. L. Pearson, chaplain of the Hawaiian senate, offered prayer. The transfer of sovereignty was about to be made. Pre-

AMERICAN AND
HAWAIIAN TROOPS
PARTICIPATE.

THE FORMAL
TRANSFER OF
ALLEGIANCE.

senting President Dole with a certified copy of the Newlands resolution, Minister Sewall announced that the United States formally consented to the political union of the two countries. The president, in brief, concise and formal language, "with full confidence in the honor, justice and friendship of the American people," yielded up on behalf of the Hawaiian body politic the sovereignty and property of the republic of Hawaii. In behalf of the United States and in equally brief, concise and formal terms this sovereignty was accepted by Minister Sewall.

So far as words were effective Hawaii as an independent nation was at an end. It had ceased to exist. Its flag still floated, but it floated merely to receive mortuary honors. In mournful succession the field pieces of the national guard volleyed forth the twenty-one guns to which even a dying flag is entitled. From the guns of the Philadelphia in the harbor half a mile away the echoing cadence came back. It was the last salute to the emblem of Hawaiian sovereignty.

When the sound of the last gun died away the Hawaiian band began "Hawaii Ponoï," the Hawaiian national anthem. But there were tears in the bandmaster's eyes. There were quavers in the notes of the familiar air which the composer never put there, and it was but a remnant of the band which went through what was to every one of them an ordeal. Of the twenty-six members, fifteen are native Hawaiians, and these at their own earnest request were excused from playing for the last time their country's national hymn.

The supreme moment had come. The flag was to be lowered. The bugle sounded retreat, and to an accompaniment of tears and emotions sought to be stifled, but plainly evident, the pretty ensign, emblematic in its design of the friendship to the Hawaiian people of the two greatest nations on earth, came down.

There was a moment's pause. Then from the ranks of the American marines came a loud and resonant bugle call, "Advance!" and to the stirring melody of "The Star-Spangled Banner" the American flag rose to the staff from which the Hawaiian had just come down. Simultaneously smaller American flags were hoisted on the smaller towers of the executive building and on the flagstaff of the judiciary building, in front of which stands the heroic statue of Kamehameha the Great, the first who gave a flag to Hawaii.

HOISTING THE
STARS
AND STRIPES.

As the flags reached their position the cannon volleyed forth again, this time in salute of the flag which should never come down; and the sun, which all morning had been hidden, beamed out bright and clear on the scene. There was an attempt to cheer the American flag as it went up, but the emotions aroused when the Hawaiian flag came down were too recent to permit anything like enthusiasm, and the cheers lacked both depth and volume.

The transfer of sovereignty was complete. The flag of a gentle, hospitable and generous but dark-skinned people had been given away by aliens in blood to aliens in blood. In all, the ceremony was impressive by its very simplicity. There was not one active participant who had in his veins a single drop of blood of that people who gave their name to the flag that was obliterated or the sovereignty of which was surrendered.

While this ceremony was going on Queen Liliuokalani sat disconsolate and alone in her home only a short distance away. She would see no one except two very old friends who had come from one of the other islands. All day and the next she remained immured at her home, receiving no one but the queen dowager, Kapiolani. And the pretty, dark-skinned young woman who even in the bitter days of the provisional government was recognized by her title of Princess Kaiulani, was weeping her eyes out alone at her Waikiki residence. She had had such dreams of sovereignty, of the time when she would be queen over her gentle people, and have a court in fact, as she has in name. But the ceremony going on at the executive building she knew meant that those dreams were gone forever, and she remained alone with her despair.

The salute to the Stars and Stripes completed the transfer of sovereignty, but was not the end of the ceremony. With the transfer of a land and people were left without a civil government. The republic of Hawaii having ceased to exist, the officials of the republic were without authority. From the new sovereignty came the re-establishment of government. The proclamation authorized by President McKinley and read at once by Minister Sewall was the warrant and charter of the new government. It provided that the government should be admin-

**NEW AUTHORITY
TO
OLD OFFICERS.**



NATIVE GRASS HOUSE NEAR PEARL HARBOR, HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

This typical Hawaiian house of the sort found in the islands when Captain Cook first visited them, stands near the residence of Mrs. Brown, located two miles from the famous United States naval station of Pearl Harbor. The gentleman seated before the doorway is United States Senator Morgan A. Olcott, chairman of the foreign affairs committee of the United States senate, and member of the commission which formulated a system of government for the Hawaiian Islands after annexation.



LUAU, OR OPEN AIR FEAST IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS

The "luau" is a peculiarly Hawaiian institution, which in primitive days was sometimes the scene of high revel. Then there were no canopies or tables or benches or dishes, but the food, all prepared in native fashion, was eaten with the fingers. The "luau" here pictured was given in honor of the congressional party which visited Honolulu in the fall of 1897, and was one of the most notable ever witnessed in the island. The days of eating with the fingers are passed, and there was plenty to eat of the sort we know at home, nevertheless, as a sample of what might have been, raw fish, sea-worms and "poi dog" were served for those who wanted to try experiments.



AN ISLAND IN PEARL HARBOR, HAWAII

A corps of engineers was sent by the United States government to survey Pearl harbor, near Honolulu, with a view to fortifying it. This was the camp of the engineers during the weeks they were at work.



AMERICAN ENGINEERS IN PEARL HARBOR

This famous harbor was granted to the United States as a coaling station by the Hawaiian government, in the days of the monarchy, in return for certain concessions on the importation of island products.

istered by those who had administered it under the republic, and that the municipal law of the old regime should continue in force under the new.

The officials of the new government having thus been pointed out, the chief justice of the republic, now the chief justice of the territory of Hawaii, proceeded to administer the oath of allegiance to these newest sons of the American union—President Dole and his cabinet. When this was done Minister Sewall made a brief address to his “fellow-citizens,” an address fitting in thought and expression to the occasion.

The national guard of Hawaii, with its flag furled, marched out through the main entrance to the parade grounds and formed into the three sides of a hollow square. The American troops marched by another way and formed as the fourth side of the square. Standing in the center of this square Colonel Fisher, the commandant, took the oath of allegiance and administered it to his field and staff officers. The men were sworn in by companies, and then President Dole presented the regiment with the flag that had been the flag of Camp Boston in the revolutionary days of 1893. With this at their head the regiment, now of the volunteer forces of the United States, escorted the marines and sailors to the boat landing.

President McKinley appointed as commissioners to visit the Hawaiian islands, under the terms of the resolution of annexation, Senator Shelby M. Cullom of Illinois, Senator John T. Morgan of Alabama, Representative Robert R. Hitt of Illinois, President Sanford B. Dole of Hawaii, and Justice W. F. Frear of the Hawaiian Supreme court.

**COMMISSIONERS
OUTLINE FORM
OF GOVERNMENT.**

This commission visited the islands in August and made a careful examination of the industrial, political and social conditions. They visited the larger islands of the group and were shown all the sights of greatest interest to travelers. During their sessions the commission listened to people of every class and nationality interested in the organization of the island government and formulated plans with the fullest knowledge possible.

The bill formulated and presented for the consideration of congress provided for the erection of the islands into a territory of the United States, to be styled the territory of Hawaii. The necessary

territorial offices were named and other details for preliminary organization outlined. Provision was made for a legislature to consist of two houses. In its effect the bill created a government as truly home rule as Hawaii had had before, so that the people were given no cause to feel that the transfer of their allegiance would in any way alter the extent of their freedom.

The only difficulty that rose from the annexation of the islands came in connection with the quartering of a large body of United States troops in Honolulu. The military authorities and the civil authorities soon came into controversy. The selection of troops for the Hawaiian

service was an unfortunate one in many ways and irritation between the townspeople and the strangers was intense. The people of Hawaii resented the quartering of a large force there as soon as it became evident that the officers of the command were not of the sort to maintain discipline or friendly relations. The American military hospital authorities refused to co-operate with the local health authorities of Honolulu, with the result that the camps selected were soon crowded with sick and the ranks of the First New York regiment, the worst affected, were almost depleted.

After peace was declared between the United States and Spain troops were gradually withdrawn from Honolulu, and as the number was reduced conditions in the islands improved and a new era of peace, prosperity and stability settled down upon "the Paradise of the Pacific."

CHAPTER XLVI.

DESCRIPTIVE OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

How Conditions of Climate, Geography and Race Have Affected the Development of the Archipelago—Discovery by Captain Cook—The Eight Inhabited Islands—The Greatest Volcanoes of the World—Delightful Climate of the Hawaiian Group—Volcanic Islands as Contrasted with Those of Coral Formation—Fertile Valleys and Lava Barrens—Fauna and Flora of the Islands—Origin of the Hawaiian People—Aboriginal Settlers and Their Migrations among the Islands of the Pacific—Hawaii in the Olden Time—Noble Work of the Missionaries—Education in the Islands—Hilo—Resources of Agriculture—Climate—Commerce of the Hawaiian Islands.

IN an island group like that of Hawaii, history has been so affected by the conditions of geography, climate and kindred influences, that it seems worth while to take a rapid glance at these phases of island affairs in connection with the progress of settlement and civilization. The name of Captain Cook is as closely identified with Hawaii as with most of the other adjacent islands in the Pacific ocean, and it is to him that the credit of modern discovery belongs. By him the name Sandwich islands was given to the country, in honor of his patron, the Earl of Sandwich, who was then first lord of the British admiralty. But the name Hawaiian islands, derived from that of the largest island of the group, is the official name used by the people who have a right to regulate their own nomenclature. **CAPTAIN COOK'S FAMOUS VOYAGE.** This name, now accepted by almost all geographers, is the only one correctly applied to this land. The eight inhabited islands, which are Hawaii, Maui, Kahoolawe, Lanai, Molokai, Oahu, Kauai and Niihan, comprise an area of about 6,700 square miles, of which the largest island, Hawaii, includes nearly two-thirds. This island is about equal in area to the state of Connecticut, while the whole group is about equal to that of Connecticut and Long Island. The eight inhabited islands extend from northwest to south-

east over a distance of about 380 miles. As a result of this scattering area and population, the people have developed the highest skill in navigation.

Few countries comprise a greater variety of surface and of climate. Hawaii contains the highest mountains of any island in the world. In Europe, only a few peaks of the Alps are as high as Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea, while Haleakala is about equal to Mt. Aetna in extent and elevation. The two largest active volcanoes in the world, Kilauea and Mauna Loa, are found in Hawaii, while Maui contains a vast extinct crater of Haleakala and the other islands abound in sublime and beautiful scenery.

The climate of the islands is much cooler than that of other countries in the same latitude. This is due, not only to the trade winds which blow over a wide extent of ocean, but also to the fact that the ocean itself is cooled by the return current from the region of Behring strait. It is said that the seas surrounding these islands are cooler by ten degrees than those of any other region in the same latitude. The islands are exempt from the destructive cyclones which often prevail in the central part of the Pacific ocean. Contrast in climate between the windward and the leeward sides of each island is very striking, the eastern slopes being windy and rainy and heavily wooded, while the western coast enjoys a warm, dry climate with a more scanty vegetation. The windward side of each island has been cut by the streams into numerous deep and precipitous ravines. By ascending the mountains, any desirable degree of temperature can be attained, while on the highest summits snow remains during most of the year.

**CLIMATE AND
SEASONS
OF HAWAII.**

How favorable the conditions of life are in the Hawaiian islands compared with the coral islands of the Pacific ocean, is well shown by Professor Dana, who spoke in reference to the Gilbert islands as follows:

"How many of the various arts of civilized life could exist in a land where shells are the only cutting instruments; the plants in all but twenty-nine in number; but a single mineral; fresh water barely enough for household purposes; no streams or mountains or hills? How much of the poetry or literature of Europe would be intelligible

to persons whose ideas had expanded only to the limits of a coral island; who had never conceived of a surface of land above half a mile in breadth, of a slope higher than a beach, of a change of seasons beyond a variation in the prevalence of the rains?"

The soil of these islands in general is poor, with the exception perhaps of Kauai, and nature yields but little spontaneously. The valleys indeed are fertile and productive but they are of limited extent. Some of the dry plains, however, can be made fertile by irrigation. In the islands of Hawaii and Maui, extensive tracts are covered with rugged lava. Much labor and skill are necessary in order to produce good crops, a fact which tends to render the inhabitants more industrious and hardy than those of some other tropical groups. As there were no metals, the inhabitants were obliged to use the best substitute they could find.

VALLEYS
AND
VOLCANOES.

The only quadrupeds existing upon the islands before their discovery by Captain Cook, were dogs, swine and mice, which were probably introduced by the first settlers. These, as well as the domestic fowls, were of the same breeds as are found throughout Polynesia. The sea abounds in fish, for which extensive artificial ponds along the coast have been constructed, evidently at the cost of prodigious labor. The principal food plants were the taro, which was the Hawaiian "staff of life," the sweet potato and the yam. The only fruit trees in ancient times were the bread fruit, cocoanut, banana and ohia, which is the same as the jambo which is found in profusion in the Philippine islands. Then there were the wild strawberry, Cape gooseberry and raspberry. Many other kinds of fruit have since been introduced. Sugar cane was indigenous and grew luxuriantly. Various forest trees supplied abundance of timber for useful and ornamental purposes.

The question of the origin of the Hawaiian race is one which has not been fully solved. The affinities not only of the people, but also of the plants and animals, are with the islands to the south and southwest. The inhabitants of all the groups of islands in the eastern Pacific from Hawaii to New Zealand may be considered as belonging to the Polynesian race, for they all speak dialects of the same language, have the same physical features, the same manners and customs, the same gen-

eral system of tabus, and similar traditions and religious rites. Again, it has been proven that the Polynesian language is but one member of a widespread family of languages, including those spoken in Micronesia, the Philippine islands, the Malay archipelago and Madagascar.

As regards the Pacific ocean, it is pretty well settled that the island of Savaii in the Samoan group was the chief center of dispersion for the Polynesian race, to which all their traditions point. It is nearly certain that there were two distinct periods of immigration into these islands. The first settlers are believed to have reached the islands as early as the year 500. These pioneers may have been either expelled from other islands in war or driven out of their course by storms. After the Hawaiian people had lived secluded from the rest of the world for many generations, intercourse between them and the islands in the south Pacific seems to have been renewed, and many voyages to have been made, which have been celebrated in song and story. There seems to have been a general movement throughout Polynesia during the eleventh and twelfth centuries.

**SAMOA THE
CENTER OF
DISTRIBUTION.**

The tabu system, which is characteristic of the Polynesian race, was perhaps most fully developed in the Hawaiian islands. It was a complicated system which covered the entire daily life of the people, with a vast network of regulations and penalties. These were not merely laws, but religious ordinances, and the violation of them was not merely a crime, but a sin which would bring down the vengeance of the gods. The most oppressive of these regulations were those relating to the sexes. It was tabu for men and women to eat together, or even to have their food cooked in the same oven. Several kinds of food were forbidden to the women on pain of death. There were occasions when no canoe could be launched, no fire lighted, and no sound could be uttered on pain of death.

**ANCIENT SOCIETY
AND
RELIGION.**

In ancient times, the Hawaiian people were divided into three classes. These were the nobility, comprising the kings and chiefs of various grades of rank; the priests, including sorcerers and doctors, and the common people, or laboring classes. The gap between the ranks was very wide, and the oppression of the common people great.

The ancient Hawaiians had innumerable objects of worship. To them the earth, the air and the sea were filled with invisible beings. The volcano, the thunder, the whirlwind, the meteor, the shark, and disease were each either the work or the actual embodiment of a malicious spirit. It is remarkable, however, that no worship was paid to the sun, moon or stars. There were many gods of varying degrees of power. Some of them worshipped in common by all the people, and others the tutelary deities of various classes. Pele, the goddess of volcanoes, and her numerous family, formed a class of deities by themselves. The Hawaiians usually worshipped their gods by means of idols, and there were many great temples throughout the islands, remains of which are still found. The primitive manners of life and thought of the ancient Hawaiians furnish an extremely interesting study, but space forbids more detail here. The Hawaiian of to-day is a development from that primitive people, changed by contact with modern civilization, which was introduced into the islands beginning with the time of Captain Cook's discovery.

The most influential factor in bringing peace, order, education and prosperity to the islands was the party of missionaries which sailed from Massachusetts on the long voyage around Cape Horn to Honolulu. These missionaries were New Englanders all, and with the energy and pertinacity of the pilgrim fathers themselves, they labored among the strange people they found, until they had created a mid-Pacific New England.

Every traveler who visits Honolulu admits his first impression to be a surprising familiarity in the scene. In spite of volcanic mountains for a background, and the foliage of tropic vegetation in riotous profusion everywhere, there is a never-failing suggestion of the New England country village, in this island metropolis. There are the same white picket fences, white frame houses with green blinds, and the same gables and gateways that characterize the New England homestead. When one looks at these through a vista of royal palm trees and bananas, the effect is somewhat startling.

**A GLIMPSE OF
NEW ENGLAND
IN HONOLULU.**

It was not only in the visible forms of household life that the people from Plymouth Rock made their impression in the Pacific. They

found a people who, though mild of manner and disposition, generous and hospitable, had absolutely no synonym or conception of the word decency. Their personal habits and conversation were gross beyond description. The history of missionary labors offers no other instance so notable of a remarkable alteration in conditions. To-day the Hawaiian islands in every part are as orderly and well defined in their organized society as our own American communities.

Honolulu is a city numbering 30,000 inhabitants, pleasantly situated on the south side of the island of Oahu. It is a city of foliage. Except in the business blocks, every house stands in its own garden, and some of the houses are extremely beautiful. The city is lighted with electric light. There is a very complete telephone system, and the street railway system extends throughout the principal streets to a beautiful sea bathing resort and public park, four miles from the city. The stores are excellent, with stocks of goods fully adequate to the demands. The public buildings are handsome and commodious. There are numerous churches, schools, a public library of more than 10,000 volumes and various fraternity halls and theaters.

Education has been the basis of the islands' prosperity and there has been no cessation in the attention paid to this function. Oahu

<p>EDUCATION IN THE ISLANDS.</p>	<p>college, fully equipped with buildings, library, museum, beautiful grounds and a thoroughly competent corps of professors, furnishes the higher education.</p>
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Then there are academies and various charitable schools for Hawaiian children. Among the institutions that must be noted are Lunalilo Home for ancient Hawaiians, Kamehameha school, and the Bishop museum, which contains the most complete collection of South Sea objects to be found anywhere in the world. There are three evening daily papers published in English, one daily morning paper, and two weeklies. Besides these there are papers published in the Hawaiian, Portuguese, Japanese and Chinese languages, and also monthly magazines in various tongues.

The town of Hilo is the port of second importance in the Hawaiian islands. It is situated on the east coast of the island of Hawaii, and is consequently the nearest port to San Francisco in the entire group. Probably it will be the landing place for the trans-Pacific cable



AT A "LUAU," HONOLULU.

President Dole and Senator Morgan, with Miss Rose between.



PRESIDENT DOLE AND FRIENDS AT A "LUAU," HONOLULU.



"OFF FOR AMERICA." STEAMER DAY AT HONOLULU.



AMERICAN CONGRESSMEN AT THE "LUAU," HONOLULU.

from the American coast and a port of great importance in time. It is an ideal tropical village, nestling in a beautiful grove, with pretty rustic cottages almost hidden among arbors of vines and flowers of the richest hues. It lies at the base of the two loftiest mountains in the Pacific ocean, on the shores of a placid bay, backed by tall groves of cocoanut trees. The surf-bathing upon the sea beach at Hilo is asserted to be the finest in the world. This is the only island of the group on which there are active volcanoes. One of these is located on the summit of Mauna Loa and the other at Kilauea on the southeastern slope of the mountain. Visitors to the volcano make their start from Hilo and, driving over a splendid carriage road constructed by the government, through fields of sugar cane for many miles, and then through the coffee district, reach the volcano hotel after an exceeding picturesque and interesting journey.

**HILO AND
THE GREAT
VOLCANOES.**

The mainstay of the Hawaiian islands has for the last thirty-five years been the sugar industry. From this source a large amount of wealth has been accumulated. But the sugar industry requires large capital for expensive machinery, and has never proved remunerative to small investors. An attempt has been made at profit-sharing, and has met with some success, the small farmer cultivating and the capitalist grinding at a central mill. Of late years, moreover, the small farmer has been steadily developing in the Hawaiian islands, and attention has been given to other products than sugar.

Rice, neither the European nor the American can cultivate as laborers. It requires working in marshy land, and though on the islands it yields two crops a year, none but the Chinamen can raise it successfully.

The main staple, after sugar and rice, is coffee. Hundreds of thousands of coffee trees have been planted within the last five years. This is essentially the crop of the future, and bids fair to become as important a staple as sugar. Coffee does not require the amount of capital that sugar does, and it can be worked remuneratively upon a small area. It is estimated that at the end of the fourth year the return from a seventy-five-acre coffee plantation will much more than pay the

**COFFEE IN THE
HAWAIIAN
ISLANDS.**

running expenses, while from that time on a return of from \$8,000 to \$10,000 a year may be realized.

Fruits can be cultivated to advantage. At present the banana trade of the islands amounts to more than 100,000 bunches annually and the quantity might easily be quadrupled. The Hawaiian orange has a fine flavor and the Hawaiian lime has an aroma and flavor far superior to that cultivated in Mexico and Central America. At present the production of these fruits is not sufficient to meet the local demand, but the quantity could be extended indefinitely. Strawberries and raspberries can be had all the year around, and pineapples, which are likewise continuous in their yield, grow plentifully and in the utmost perfection.

In the uplands, where the climate is temperate, vegetables of all kinds can be raised. Corn, potatoes, cabbages, tomatoes, beans, lettuce, cauliflower, radishes and many others of the finest quality can be had every day in the year, and in such profusion as to astonish those who have lived only in northern climates.

Experiments in the cultivation of fibre-plants, such as ramie and sisal hemp, have proven that there are possibilities in this direction. Dry-land rice, cacao, guava and other strictly tropical products are cultivated profitably, and should develop into more important industries as the islands become more fully settled.

The islands that interest an intending immigrant are Hawaii, Maui, Oahu and Kauai. The first is the largest of the group, and presents great varieties of soil and climate. The Kona district has given the coffee product a name in the markets of the world. On this island are now situated numerous sugar plantations. Coffee employs the industry of several hundred owners from the man with 200,000 trees to the one with only an acre or so. There are thousands of acres uncultivated and waiting for development.

Maui is second in size of the Hawaiian islands. Besides its sugar plantations, it has numerous coffee lands. In the island of Oahu, where Honolulu is situated, are many beautiful valleys yet undeveloped. Kauai is called the garden island, it is so well watered and so luxuriant in vegetation. The island is at present largely devoted to the cultivation of sugar. The smaller islands of the group are not without at-

tractive opportunities and resources, but their size limits these possibilities in number. Lanai is largely given to pasture lands, there being about 30,000 sheep upon the ranches there, besides goats, horses and cattle. Molokai has some fine valleys where cattle and a few horses roam. Some thirty years ago a family of spotted deer were sent as a present to Kamehameha V. from the emperor of Japan, and were placed on this island. The small band has increased to more than 3,000, which run wild over a large part of Molokai. The little island of Kahoolawe is used as a sheep pasture, and has only a few residents engaged as shepherds. The most westerly island of the group, Niihau, is all included in one great sheep ranch, and consequently is not available for other settlement, unless the owners should decide to divide it and place it on the market.

RESOURCES OF
THE
SMALLER ISLANDS.

Commerce of the Hawaiian Islands.

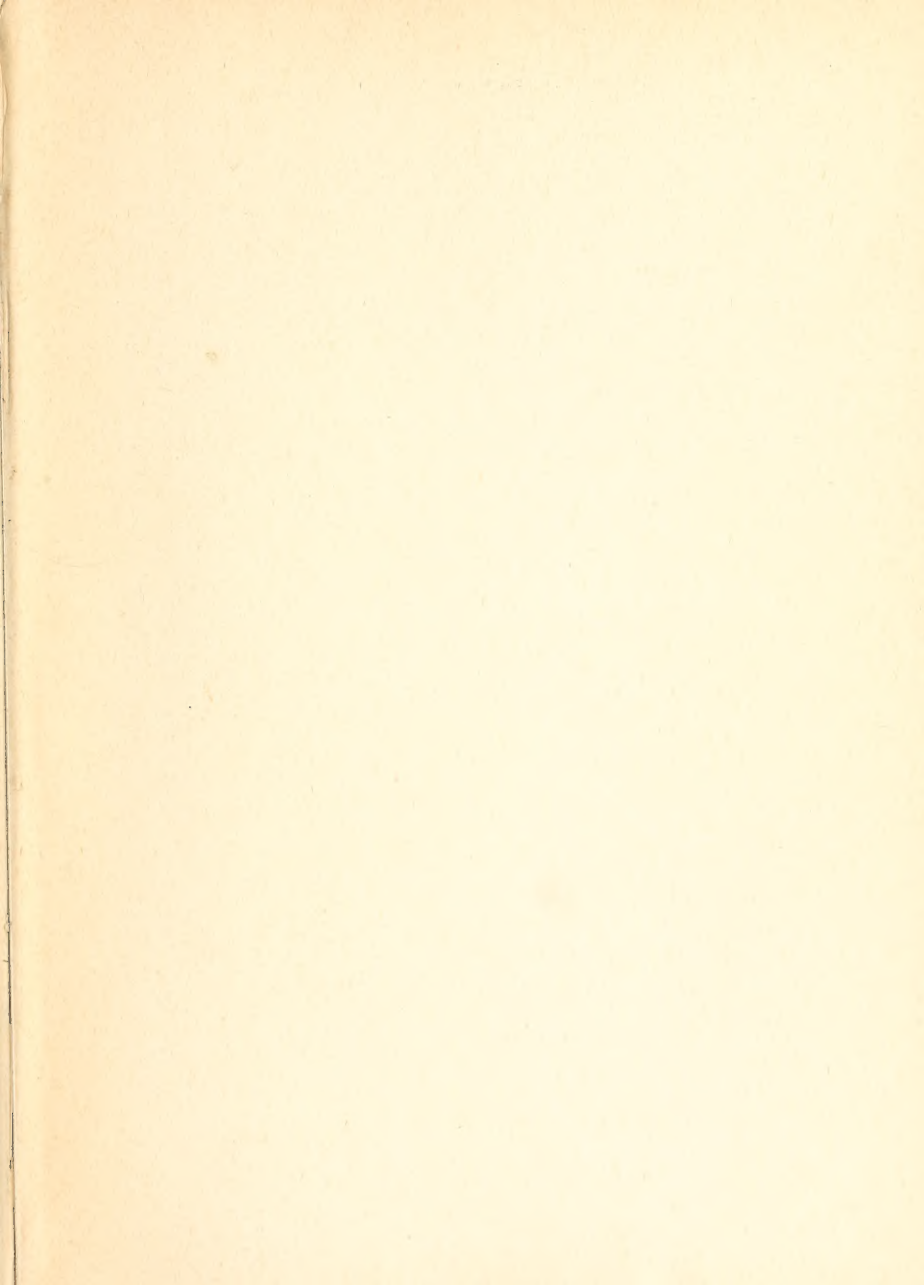
For many years virtually the entire commerce of the Hawaiian islands has been with the United States. The accompanying figures will be of service in estimating the possible commerce of the islands in the future:

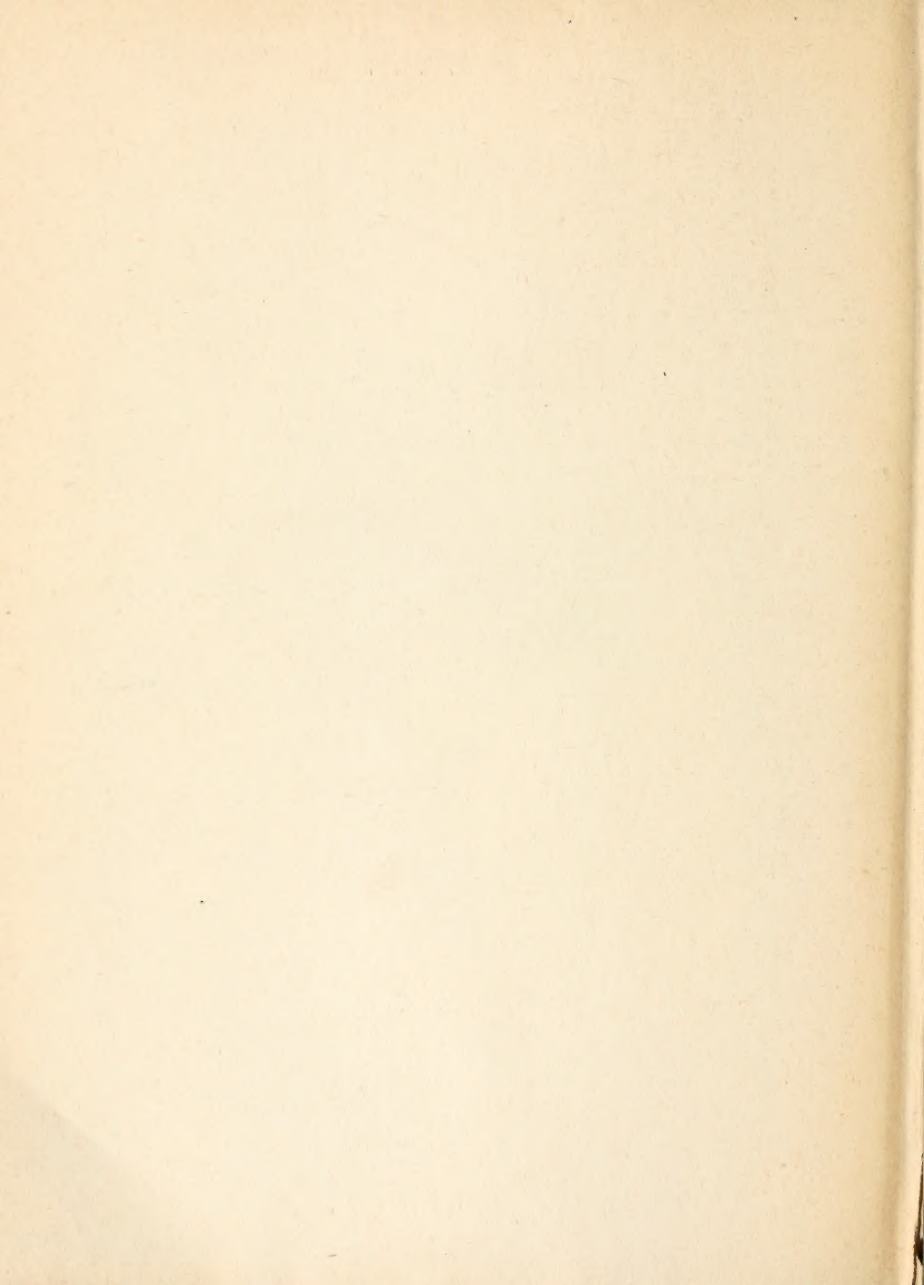
The first table shows the total importations, including specie, into the Hawaiian islands during 1897:

		Per cent.
United States Pacific ports.....	\$6,502,936.70	73.58
United States Atlantic ports.....	297,091.64	3.36
Great Britain	865,781.25	9.80
Germany	192,932.19	2.18
China	260,417.40	2.94
Japan	292,316.34	3.31
Australasia and New Zealand.....	122,453.19	1.39
Canada	58,674.92	.66
Islands of the Pacific.....	5,864.04	.07
France	30,997.32	.35
Other countries	208,738.10	2.36
Totals	\$8,838,203.09	100.00

The following shows the most important articles exported from the United States to Hawaii in 1897, compared with 1896:

	1896	1897.
Agricultural implements	\$7,772	\$8,012
Animals	45,647	108,557
Books, maps, etc.	25,740	45,990
Bread and biscuit	33,593	34,999
Wheat	206,101	232,800
All other breadstuffs	278,470	355,867
Carriages and street cars, etc.	26,063	26,801
Chemicals, drugs and dyes	124,278	103,563
Coal	10,606	6,809
Copper and manufactures of	1,599	3,995
Cotton, manufactures of	301,256	365,715
Fancy articles	6,425	6,737
Fish	95,171	124,991
Flax, hemp and manufactures of	31,844	86,967
Fruits, including nuts	38,916	45,329
Glass and glassware	19,347	23,654
Gunpowder, other explosives	19,452	19,514
Hay	66,832	74,525
India rubber and gutta percha, manufactures of	23,780	30,382
Iron and steel and manufactures of	726,942	885,050
Jewelry and manufactures gold and silver	6,620	4,730
Leather and manufactures of	176,027	203,455
Lime and cement	17,923	22,912
Malt liquors	51,387	70,749
Matches	16,227	13,742
Musical instruments	20,190	22,845
Oils	97,256	77,106
Paints, pigments and colors	34,700	44,263
Paper and stationery	70,278	78,258
Provisions (meat and dairy products)	155,576	148,279
Spirits	23,968	32,695
Sugar, refined	37,440	34,140
Tobacco, manufactures of	174,100	171,315
Vegetables	27,188	31,183
Wine	72,658	76,265
Boards, deals, etc.	210,934	238,784
Household furniture	66,022	96,573
All other wood	89,592	109,972
Wool, manufactures of	51,614	56,543
All other articles	438,577	580,529
Total domestic exports	\$3,928,187	\$4,622,581





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